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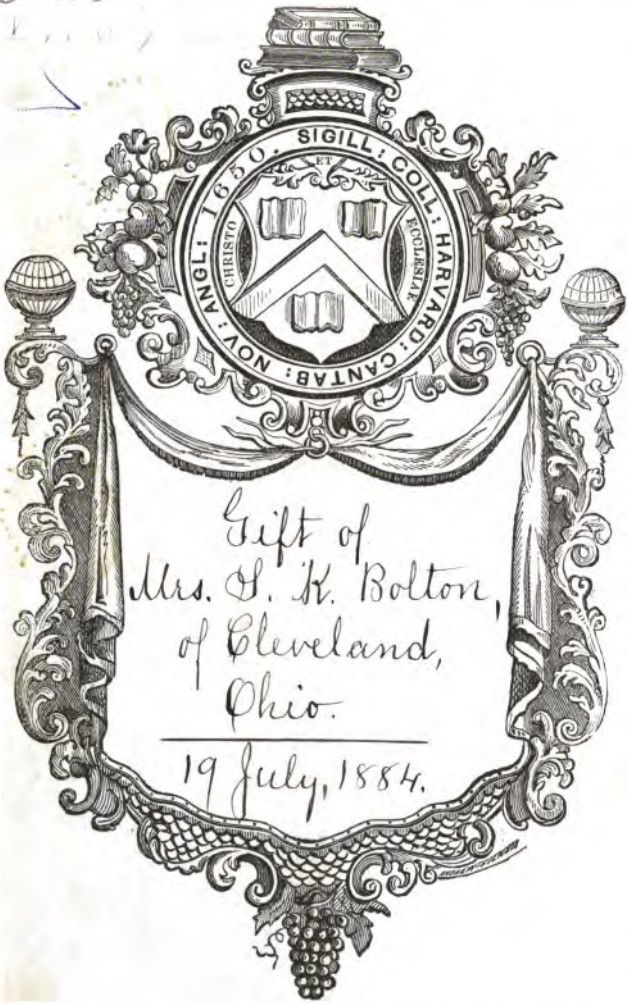

Gift of
Mrs. S. K. Bolton,
of Cleveland,
Ohio.

19 July, 1884.

5

Justin Minor

a little book
what my hus
band is do

KSD 268

Imperfect:- pp. 137-140 torn out.

TEN "BOOKS FOR THE PEOPLE"

Reports, Programmes, Etc.,

GIVEN TO THE

MEMBERS AND TICKET-HOLDERS

OF THE

Cleveland Educational Bureau.

THIRD SERIES,
1883–1884.

EDITED BY
CHARLES E. BOLTON.

PUBLISHED BY
THE CLEVELAND EDUCATIONAL BUREAU.
CLEVELAND, OHIO.
1884.

Copyright, 1884, by Charles E. Bolton.

~~TV, 1844~~
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1884. July 19.
Paid
Miss Sarah K. Bolton,
of Cleveland.

PREFACE.

DURING the winter of 1883–84, ten "Books for the People," the third series, have been published by the Cleveland Educational Bureau, 4,000 of each number, or a total of 40,000 for our membership. These small books were given free to ticket-holders as they entered the Tabernacle in attendance upon our annual course of entertainments beginning Saturday evening, November 24, 1883, and ending February 2, 1884. The price of a Membership Ticket was $1.25, which entitled the bearer to ten first-class Orchestra Concerts, ten Lecture Preludes, ten Lectures, Concerts, Debates, etc., and ten condensed and common-sense "Books for the People."

The chief object of the books and entertainments has been not so much to educate our busy people as to stimulate them to seek further for knowledge.

The original covers of the pamphlets and half a dozen pages of advertisements were removed by the book-binder, who charged an additional thirty-five cents for binding the ten books into a bright red volume of about four hundred pages.

Names of Officers, Secretary's and Treasurer's Reports, may be found on pages 335, 336, 337, 338 and 339.

It is sincerely hoped by the Management that at least a few of the many persons who have attended the thirty-two entertainments of 1881–82, 1882–83, 1883–84 seasons, will be incited to make the most of life's grand possibilities.

C. E. BOLTON, *Secretary.*

CLEVELAND, February 2, 1884.

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NUMBER ONE.

Inventors and Inventions

"NECESSITY IS THE MOTHER OF INVENTION."

Hello, Sir William Thompson, What do you think of the Telephone?
"It is the marvel of marvels."

EDITED BY
CHARLES E. BOLTON.

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1883.

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SATURDAY EVENING, - - - - NOVEMBER 24, 1883.

FIRST ENTERTAINMENT.

MUSICAL PRELUDE, from 6:45 to 7:15. BY THE EDUCATIONAL BUREAU ORCHESTRA.

PROGRAMME.

1. March—Farewell to the Forest ..... C. Kuppe.
2. Overture—Vaudeville ..... G. Koppitz.
3. Concert Polka (for two Cornets) ..... A. Parlow.
4. Selection from "Patience" ..... A. Sullivan.
5. Waltz—Graffenstein ..... J. Rixner.
6. Rheinlander ..... Weingarten.
7. Galop ..... Strauss.

LECTURE PRELUDE, from 7:15 to 7:45, - - - BY CHAPLAIN A. G. BYERS.

SUBJECT: "Wrongs in Prisons and Poorhouses." Illustrated.

SINGING SCHOOL, 7:45 to 7:55, - - Conducted by PROF. N. COE STEWART.

☞ Audience please stand first five minutes. ☜

MR. SAMUEL MATHER, Treasurer of "The Society For Savings," will preside.

LECTURE, 8:00 to 9:30, - - - - - - - - BY GEN. JOHN EATON,
Commissioner of the National Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

SUBJECT: "Technical Education Abroad and at Home."

December 1st, Second Entertainment, Saturday Evening, - MR. WILLIAM I. MARSHALL.
Subject, "Wonders of the Far West." Ninety Illustrations

Mr. Marshall kindly consented to condense, for the Bureau, his five lectures into one. So we may expect a rare treat.

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The heights by great men reached and kept
Were not attained by sudden flight;
But they, while their companions slept,
Were toiling upwards in the night.—*Longfellow.*

NOTHING good comes of violence.—*Martin Luther.*

BE not simply good; be good for something.—*Moreau.*

RUSKIN'S motto, inscribed on a piece of chalcedony is "TO-DAY."

ONE cannot always be a hero, but one can always be a man.—*Goethe.*

NEVER forget a favor, for ingratitude is the basest trait of man's heart.

THERE is always hope in a man that actually and earnestly works. In idleness alone there is perpetual despair.—*Carlyle.*

LORD CHESTERFIELD said of the Duke of Newcastle, "His Grace loses an hour in the morning, and is looking for it all the rest of the day."

"WE are, to a great extent, what our mothers make us. The lessons we learn from their dear lips are the lessons which abide by us to the grave.—*Adams.*

"YES," said Farmer Jones, "my summer boarders complain that the nights are cold, but they certainly have no right to expect me to take the blankets off the tomato vines such weather as this."

SIDNEY SMITH said to his vestry, in reference to a block pavement proposed to be built around St. Paul's, "All you have to do, gentlemen, is to put your heads together, and the thing is done."

A BIG Yankee from Maine, on paying his bill in a London restaurant, was told that the sum put down didn't include the waiters. "Wal," he roared, "I didn't eat any waiter; did I?" He looked as if he could, though; and there was no further discussion.

"NO," said the sad-eyed man, "I never press a young woman to play upon the piano. I tried it once to my sorrow." "Why, what followed?" asked a half dozen eager voices. "She played," replied the sad-eyed man. "I shall never forget the lesson I learned that day."

"AW, can you sell me, aw, a blue necktie to match my eyes, you know?" inquired a dude in a gentleman's furnishing store. "Don't know as I can, exactly," replied the salesman, "but I can fit you to a soft hat to match that head." Then the dude withdrew from the store, a crushed strawberry hue effusing his effeminate features.

AMERICA.—National hymn.

F. S. SMITH.

Maestoso.

1. My coun-try 'tis of thee, Sweet land of lib - er - ty, Of thee I sing; Land where my
2. My na-tive coun - try! thee, Land of the no - ble free, Thy name I love; I love thy
3. Let mu-sic swell the breeze, And ring from all the trees Sweet freedom's song; Let mortal

fa - thers died; Land of the pil- grim's pride; From ev - 'ry moun-tain side Let freedom ring.
rocks and rills, Thy woods and templed hills; My heart with rap - ture thrills, Like that a-bove.
tongues a-wake; Let all that breathe partake; Let rocks their si - lence break, The sound prolong.

EVERYBODY IS EXPECTED, THIS WINTER, TO JOIN IN SINGING THIS AND OTHER PATRIOTIC SONGS.

The music, "God Save the Queen," and the hymn, "My Country, 'Tis of Thee," by Rev. Samuel F. Smith, seem perpetually named. The American and French Republics may well be proud of their national hymns.

In June, 1792, fifteen hundred men, wearing red caps, and armed with muskets and swords, marched from Marseilles to Paris, singing the song of the young officer, Rouget de l'Isles, which he composed in fortified Strasbourg. Thus the new song, "Ye Sons of Freedom," came to be known as the "Marseillaise," which, above all other songs ever written, has stirred the hearts of men. (See next page.)

THE MARSEILLES HYMN.

Moderato.

1. Ye sons of Freedom'wake to glo - ry, Hark,hark,what myriads bid you
2. Now,now the dang'rous storm is roll-ing,Which treach'rous Kings confederate
3. O LIB - ER-TY! can man re - sign thee? Once having felt thy generous

rise,Your children,wives and grandsires hoary; Be-hold their tears and hear their
raise,The dogs of war, let loose, are howling, And lo! our walls and cit - ies
flame,Can dungeons,bolts and bars confine thee! Or whips thy no-ble spir - it

cries,Be-hold their tears and hear their cries;Shall hateful ty -rants mis-chief
blaze,And lo! our wall and cit-ies blaze,And shall we base – ly view the
tame, Or whips thy no - ble spir-it tame? Too long the world has wept be -

breeding With hireling hosts,a ruf-fian band, Af-fright and des - o - late the
ru - in;While lawless force with guilty stride, Spread des-o - la - tion far and
wailing,That falsehood's dagger tyrants yield; But freedom is our Sword and

land..... While peace and lib - er - ty lie bleed-ing.
wide..... With crimes and blood his hand em - bru - ing.
Shield... And all their arts are un - a - vail - ing.

CHORUS IN UNISON.

ff

To arms, to arms ye brave! Th' a-veng - ing sword un-sheath!

March on! March on! All hearts re-solved on Vic - to - ry or death.

INVENTORS AND INVENTIONS.

BY FREDERICK T. WALLACE.

THE inventive and constructive genius of woman is coeval and coequal with man in all that appertains to the domestic necessities of the race from the infancy of mankind to the glory of kingdoms, principalities, and powers of modern times. The use of the needle; the invention of primitive weaving—the first simple warp and woof of the nomad of the Asiatic plains or the African desert—the knitting of the sock and mitten for the husband and son who faced the sleet and sledged over the snows of the frozen and dreary North; the fine fabrics and gossamer laces which have adorned the persons of kings and courtiers, and still grace the forms of women and children everywhere to-day, all, all is attributable to, and the resultant product of the woman of all the tribes, peoples and nations, in all the ages.

Strike from the world all that the delicate and tasteful genius and deft handiwork of woman has produced, and ships would cease to plow the ocean; the locomotive to traverse continents; commerce would be no more; social comforts would assume primeval conditions; literature would lose its electric light, and the arts again be lost.

Outside of the domestic and social arts, man, doubtless, has displayed more manifestly, to the common observation of the active business world, the wonderful conceptions of inventive and constructive genius than woman. His constitution and powers being better fitted by nature for dominion over the wide and laborious field of mechanism, to him has been more especially assigned agriculture, architecture, land and naval, mechanics, and the making of the infinite thousands of tools and instruments, both ponderous and delicate, by which all art and science is developed and perfected; so his works have grown and multiplied from the building of the first city in the land of Nod to London and the Crystal Palace, and from the first rude raft or "dug-out," on the Euphrates or the Ganges to the Great Eastern, and the highest types of naval architecture in the commercial marine of modern nations.

But it is not the European or American man alone to whom credit is due for all we see and know in our day, for we check largely upon the Bank of Asia to make up the capital of modern Western inventive enterprises. Iron was smelted in the valleys of the Himalayas, and steel was wrought into sabres in the forges of Damascus before the sound of the axe was heard in the forests of Europe. The knowledge of smelting and working in iron came from the East. Iron was especially valued for the purposes of war. The biblical record reads with renewed interest in this age of iron. One of the earliest notices of the metal is in connection with the conquest of Judea by the Philistines. To complete the subjection of the Israelites, their conquorers made captive all the smiths of the land, and carried them away. The Philistines felt that their hold on the country was insecure so long as the inhabitants possessed the means of forging weapons. Hence "there was no smith to be found throughout all the land of Israel; for the Philistines said, Lest the Hebrews make them swords and spears. But the Israelites went down to the Philistines to sharpen every man his share, and his coulter, and his axe, and his mattock." When Jerusalem was taken by the Babylonians, one of the first acts was to carry the smiths and other craftsmen captive to Babylon. Deprived of their armorers, the Jews were rendered comparatively powerless.

The foundation of the once great empire of the Turk was laid in their knowledge of the art of iron forging. These people were once the despised slaves of a powerful Khan. They occupied certain districts of the Altai in Central Asia, which yielded iron in large quantities. This metal the Turks were employed by the Khan to forge for his use in war. A leader rose among them, who persuaded them not to "strike" for better bread and more of it, but that the arms which they forged for their masters might in their own hands become the instruments of freedom. Sallying forth from their mountains they set up their standard, and their weapons freed them. For centuries after, the Turkish nation continued to celebrate the event of their liberation by an annual ceremony, in which a piece of iron heated in the fire, and a smith's hammer, was successively handled by the prince and his nobles.

The Chinese mined coal, for fuel, ages before England knew she had any at Newcastle. Her fleets of commercial ships, guided over oceans by the mysterious science of the fixed stars and the mariner's compass, rode upon the green waters of the Persian Gulf in the first Chaldean monarchy, before Babylon and Ninevah, before Hiram put ships on the Mediterranean or Solomon sent his ships through the Red Sea, by thousands of years. The First National Bank of China issued, as currency, paper notes—greenbacks—legal tender, in

the thirteenth century. China has, besides, given us gunpowder and fire-crackers for our Fourth of July, and yet we are not all considerate of the Oriental, and some think Wang Yung should not be permitted to cleanse our soiled linen.

Gold and silver was mined and coined, and the gold and silversmiths of remote antiquity wrought the wondrous patterns of jewelry that astonish the artist in the precious metals of to-day, and the museums of Europe are filled with the wonders of Asiatic and Egyptian mechanism and art. Truly our Oriental ancestors did some mighty works and wondrous things in the ancient days, and still there are wise men in the East.

ROMAN IRON WORKS IN BRITAIN—THE SWORDS OF ANDREA.

To America and Europe ours is emphatically the age of Iron and Steel. With agriculture as the basis for most of human necessities, iron is the element, above all others, which has given impetus to commercial progress, and wealth to modern nations. Its rise and progress to its present eminence is worthy a brief considertaion.

> **Great is Coal, the swarthy hearth-king!**
> **Great is Iron, the dusky earth-king!**
> **Though black as Ethiopes, they command**
> **All enterprise on sea and land.**

During the 450 years of Roman domination and colonization in Britain, iron was made on a large scale. Evidences of Roman industry and skill are brought to light every year. They carried on smelting of iron in nearly all parts of the Island, and the heaps of mining refuse, left by them in the valleys and along the hill-sides of North Derbyshire, are alluded to by the country people as the "old man's work." The principal mines, however, worked by that people, were in the Southern counties and on the borders of Wales. As early as A.D. 120 the Romans had forges in the West of England, both in the Forest of Dean and in South Wales. The metal was sent to Bristol where it was made into weapons for the use of the army. As late as April of the present year (1883), the writer saw along the banks of the Wye, in Wales, continuous beds of iron cinders, in which numerous remains of pottery are noticeable, furnishing unmistakable proofs of the Roman furnaces. In Sussex, on the Channel Coast, iron ores were extensively worked, and cinder heaps are found intermixed with pottery and coins of the reigns of Nero, Vespasian and Dioclesian.

The worker in refined iron, the smith—from mythological times through all the ages and in all nations—has been the most noted of artizans. He shod the war horse, made the bolts and fastenings for the lord's castle-gates,

and chains for his draw-bridge; it was principally because of his skill in armor-work that he was esteemed. He made and mended the weapons used in the chase and in war—the bills and battle-axes; he tipped the bowman's arrows, and furnished the spear-heads for the men-at-arms; but, above one and all, he forged the mail coats and cuirasses of the chiefs, and welded their swords, on the temper and quality of which, life, honor, and victory in battle depended. Hence the great estimation in which the smith was held in the later Anglo-Saxon times. He was treated with distinguished consideration and in the matter of precedency out ranking the physician. In the royal court he sat in the great hall with the King and Queen, next to the domestic chaplain.

The smith was an artist as well as a workman. In the tooling and chasing, and in the consummate knowledge of the capabilities of iron, he greatly surpassed the modern workman. Besides the numerous specimens of ancient armor, preserved in the Tower, of beautiful workmanship, there is in Westminster Abbey an iron railing, or rather screen, enclosing the marble effigy of an ancient King, most delicately and elaborately executed, the work of one of the old time blacksmiths, surpassing our conception of the possibilities of the hammer of Vulcan.

Hence it may be readily understood how, when surnames came to be adopted, the Smiths of all countries became so numerous.

> "From whence came Smith, all be he knight or squire,
> But from the Smith that forgeth in the fire?"

From being merely the retainer of some lordly or religious establishment, in course of time the smith worked to supply the general demand, and gradually became a manufacturer. Thus the makers of swords, spears and battle-axes, congregated at Birmingham; and the makers of knives and arrow-heads at Sheffield. Chaucer speaks of the miller of Trompington as provided with a Sheffield "whittle:"

> "A Sheffield thwytel bare he in his hose."

Before table-knives were invented, in the sixteenth century, the knife was a very important article; each guest at table bearing his own, and sharpening it at the whetstone hung in the passage before sitting down to dinner. Some even carried a whetstone as well as a knife; and one of Queen Elizabeth's presents to the Earl of Leicester was a whetstone tipped with gold. Clasp or spring knives were first made in Sheffield about 1650, and were commonly known as a *jocteleg*. The words being merely a corruption of *Jaques de Liege*, a famous foreign cutler, whose knives were as well known throughout Europe as are those of Rogers now. Hence our jack-knife, the first delight of the boy.

The common English arrowheads manufactured at Sheffield were long celebrated for their excellent temper, as Sheffield iron and steel plates are now. The battle of Hamildon, fought in Scotland in 1402, was won mainly through their excellence. The historian records that they penetrated the armor of the Earl of Douglas, which had been three years in making; and they were so sharp and strong that no armor could repel them. The same arrowheads were found equally efficient against French armor on the fields of Crecy and Agincourt.

Finally a great armorer arose in the Highlands, one Andrea, who learnt his art in Italy, and returned to practice it among the Highland hills. He forged armor that would resist the best Sheffield arrowheads, and made swords that would vie with the best weapons of Toledo and Milan. Before him no man in Great Britain is said to have known how to temper a sword in such a way as to bend so that the point should touch the hilt and spring back uninjured. Andrea's swords did this like the famous Damascus blade of Saladin. His swords were in great demand; for it was of the highest importance to the warrior that his weapons should be strong and sharp without being unwieldly, and that it should not be liable to snap in the act of combat.

As late as the time of the Spanish Armada, 1588, the production of iron in England had been greatly discouraged because of the destruction of the forests by the smelting of the ore—the art of reducing it with pit coal not having yet been invented; and consequently the English Government and manufacturers were mainly dependent on foreign countries for their supplies for that material. The best iron came from Spain, then the most powerful nation in Europe, and celebrated for the excellency of its weapons of war, as for the valor of its troops. They regarded its scarcity in England as an important element in their calculations of the conquest of the country by their famous Armada. The vigor of Elizabeth's ministers promptly supplied a remedy by large importations of iron from Sweden, and an increased activity of the forges in Sussex and the Forest of Dean, and England was saved from the Armada. There lies at the door of the English Admiralty building, fronting St. James Park, an anchor of large proportions and great weight, which the writer recently examined, which belonged to the flag ship of the Armada, lost in the English Channel, when the fleet of the Duke of Medina Sidonia was wrecked and dispersed, and was dredged up from the Channel where it had lain for nearly three hundred years. Up to the time of this naval expedition the anchors of English ships had been made in Spain. Such had been the poverty of English iron manufacturers under the prior edicts against the further destruction of the forests for the smelting of iron, pit coal

not having come into successful use for that purpose. And now after the lapse of three hundred years the smith and the iron manufacturer, with bituminous coal substituted for charcoal, again lead the industries of England and the world. Oak is superseded by iron upon the ocean, and iron commands all enterprise upon the land. What Solon said to Croesus, when the latter was displaying his great treasures of gold, still holds true: "If another comes that hath better iron than you, he will be master of all that gold." So when the alchemist waited upon the Duke of Brunswick during the Seven Years' War, and offered to communicate the secret of converting iron into gold, the Duke replied: "By no means: I want all the iron I can find to resist my enemies—as for gold, I get it from England." The lesson is, that the strength and wealth of nations depends upon coal and iron, men being considered, far more than upon gold.

IRON SMELTING BY PIT-COAL—DUD DUDLEY—ABRAM DARBY—RICHARD REYNOLDS.

After the Romans left Britain the Teutonic tribes settled along the south coast, continued the smelting and manufacture of iron after the methods taught them by the colonists, but civil wars interfered and the art of iron forging became neglected, though it was continued in the iron producing districts of the West bordering upon and in Wales. In many of the Anglo-Saxon graves which have been opened, long iron swords have been found, showing that weapons of that metal were in common use. But it is evident that iron was still scarce at the time of the Conquest, as no mention is made in Doomsday Book of iron manufactures in any of the southern counties of England; and one of the Anglo-Saxon laws enacted that no man should guide a plow who could not make one; and that the cords with which it was bound should be of twisted willows. The metal was held in esteem principally as the material of war, and honor was awarded by statute to such artificers as excelled in the fabrication of arms and defensive armor.

In England the Monks of the Middle Ages, greatly to their usefulness and honor, worked in iron, and many were excellent craftsmen. St. Dunstan was a skilled blacksmith and metallurgist, and the legend comes down to us that he had a forge in his house, where he had once an encounter with Satan, who was jealous of the Saint's good works, but getting his hot tongs on his majesty's nose, and flagellating him with hot iron rods, he gave him such a basting that he never called on the Saint after, but let him alone, as severely as he did Luther a few hundred years later, when he spoilt the devil's new suit of clothes by throwing the inkstand at his head when he called at his study. Another Monk of St. Albans, in the Twelfth century, was famous for his skill as a

worker in iron, silver, gold, jewelry, and gilding, and was invited by the King of Denmark to be his goldsmith and banker. A pair of gold and silver candlesticks of his manufacture were presented to Adrian IV., the first and only English prelate that ever occupied the Chair of St. Peter at Rome.

The abbots of monasteries in the iron districts, among their other labors, devoted themselves to the manufacture of iron from the ore. In the Forest of Dean the abbot was allowed two oak trees weekly for fuel—a privilege afterwards commuted, in 1258, for Abbott's Wood of 872 acres; and in 1282 as many as 72 forges were leased from the Crown by various iron-smelters in the same Forest of Dean.

When cannon came to be employed in war they were manufactured in the south of England on account of nearness to the sea. The metal was still too precious to be used for cannon balls, which were hewn of stone from quarries on Mardstone Heath. Iron was only available, and that in limited quantities, for the fabrication of cannon themselves, and wrought iron was chiefly used for the purpose. An old mortar which once lay on Eridge Green, near Fraut, is said to be the first mortar made in England. An old distich runs thus:

> **"Master Hugget and his man John**
> **They did cast the first cannon."**

Gun founding was a French invention, established in 1543, by one, Ralph Hogge, a master founder, who employed as his principal assistant a foreman, whom he brought over from France to teach his workmen the methods of casting the guns. In this establishment was invented and introduced the manufacture of the explosive shell in the form in which it continued in use down to our own day. It was in Hogge's establishment also that Peter Van Collet, a Flemish gunsmith, "devised or caused to be made certain mortar pieces, being at the mouth from nine to eleven inches wide, for the use whereof he made certain hollow shot of cast-iron, to be stuffed with fyrework, whereof the bigger sort for the same has screws of iron to receive a match to carry fyre for to break in small pieces the said hollow shot, whereof the smallest piece hitting a man would kill or spoil him." Some of these mortars and shells are still preserved in the Tower.

Great wealth was gained by the pursuit of iron manufacture, especially in the south of England, three hundred years ago. The great landed proprietors entered with zeal into this branch of industry, and when wood ran short they did not hesitate to sacrifice their ancestral oaks to provide fuel for the furnaces. The most ancient families, such as the Nevilles, Howards, Percys, Stanleys,

Ashburnhams, and others prosecuted the manufacture with all the apparent ardor of men of modern times. Our William Penn, of Collonial fame, the Courtier Quaker, had iron-furnaces at Hawkhurst and other places in Sussex.

Then after the great Lords and landed gentlemen came a new race of men, to be enriched, from among the people, like our American manufacturers, railroad men, telegraph projectors, telephone men, and electric light men, acquiring great fortunes, and founding families backed and bolstered by great estates. And they were not ashamed of the ladder by which they arose to consequence. The Fuller family acknowledged their origin by adopting as their motto, *Carbone et forcipibus*—literally, by charcoal and tongs. Leonard Gale was born in 1620, at Riverhead, near Seven Oaks, where his father pursued the trade of a blacksmith. He went down into Sussex and found work in the St. Lunard's Forge. After forty years' labor he accumulated a good fortune which he left to a son of the same name, who went on iron forging, and eventually became a country gentleman, owner of an estate, and a member of Parliament. Some new families, however, after occupying high positions in the country, again subsided into the laboring class, illustrating the proverb of "Twice clogs, once boots," the sons squandering what the fathers had gained, and falling back into the ranks again. Such was the fate of the celebrated Fowles family of Riverhall, which disappeared from Sussex. One of them built the fine mansion of Riverhall, noble even in decay. Another had a grant of free warren from King James over his estates in that country, but the fourth in descent from this person not long since kept the turnpike-gate on the high road to London, and the last of the family emigrated to the United States in 1839, carrying with him, as the sole relic of his family greatness, the royal grant of free warren given to his ancestor.

But the great oak forests, the pride of England, were being swept away by the iron industries, and as early as 1580 Parliament prohibited their conversion into fuel for the making of iron, within fourteen miles of the Thames, and forbidding the erection of iron works within twenty-two miles of London, and restricting the number of works in several counties. These severe restrictions, and others that followed, enforced by the legislature against the use of wood in iron smelting, had the effect of almost extinguishing the manufacture. The people were alarmed for the forests, and many said that "there should be no works any where, they do so devour the wood." The consequence was that from 1620 on for a hundred years and more, iron was largely imported into England. The Steelyard Company of Foreign Merchants was established, and the name of Steelyard is still to be seen, after two hundred years, just above London Bridge, marking the site of that once famous monopoly.

Under these circumstances it was natural that persons interested in English iron manufacture should turn their attention to some other description of fuel which should serve as a substitute for the prohibited article. There was known to be an abundance of coal in the northern and midland counties, and it occurred to some speculators, more than usually daring, to propose it as a substitute for the charcoal fuel made from wood. But the old manufacturers held it to be impossible to reduce ore in any other way than by means of charcoal of wood. It was only when the wood in the neighborhood of the iron works had been almost exhausted, that the manufacturers were driven to entertain the idea of using coal as a substitute; but more than a hundred years elapsed before the practice of smelting iron by its means became general.

Several persons in that time took out patents for the process and "mystery," but the idea was not fairly born and the possibility acknowledged by the iron men until 1620, when Lord Dudley took out his patent, at the instance of his son, Dud Dudley, "for melting iron ore, making bar iron, etc., with coal, in furnaces with bellows."

Dud Dudley was born in 1599, at Dudley Castle, in the county of Worcester. He was well educated by his father, who employed him afterwards in confidential affairs connected with his large business. Dud Dudley describes himself as taking great delight, when a youth, in his father's iron works near Dudley, where he obtained considerable knowledge of the various processes of the manufacture. The town of Dudley was already the center of the iron manufacture, though chiefly of small wares, such as nails, horse-shoes, keys, locks, and common agricultural tools; and it was estimated that there were about twenty thousand smiths, and workers in iron of various kinds, living within a circuit of ten miles of Dudley Castle. But as in the southern counties, the production of iron had suffered great diminution from the want of fuel in the district, "though formerly a mighty woodland country;" and many important branches of the local trade were brought to a stand-still. Yet there was an extraordinary abundance of coal in the neighborhood, with iron stone, limestone, adjacent. The conjunction seemed almost providential, "as if," observes Dudley, "God had decreed the time when and how these smiths should be supplied, and this island also, with iron, and most especially that this coal and iron should give the first and just occasion for the invention of smelting iron with pit-coal;" though all attempts before made with that object had practically failed.

He was studying at College, Oxford, in 1619, when his father sent for him to take charge of an iron furnace and two forges. He was no sooner installed manager of the works, than, feeling hampered by the want of fuel, his attention

was directed to the employment of pit-coal as a substitute. He altered his furnaces accordingly, so as to adapt them to the new process, and the result of the first trial was such as to induce him to persevere. Whether he subjected the coal to a process similar to that of charcoal burning is not very clear, but the result was the first production of merchantable iron without charcoal. But his process met with great opposition from those engaged in the charcoal process of smelting iron, and the civil wars of Cromwell's time coming on his works were ruined, and he never reaped the just award for his discovery.

But for more than fifty years after Dudley's discovery all schemes for smelting ore with any other fuel than charcoal made from wood were regarded with incredulity by iron masters and their workmen. About 1713 Mr. Abraham Darby smelted by pit-coal in his furnace at Coalbrookdale, and in a few years pit-coal came into large and general use in the blasting furnaces as well as the fineries of Coalbrookdale. Darby was a Quaker, the son of a farmer, born at Wrensnest, near Dudley Castle; commenced business at Bristol in the line of brass and iron founding; went to Holland to acquire the art of casting what was called "Hilton Ware." He removed to Coalbrookdale, where his firm became wealthy and famous.

Richard Reynolds, born at Bristol in 1735, like the Darbys, belonged to the Society of Friends; married a daughter of the second Abraham Darby; carried on the iron works at Ketley and Horsehay; subsequently, in 1763, removing to Coalbrookdale, and taking charge of the works there on the death of his father-in-law. This firm established foundries in London, Bristol, and Liverpool. One invention stimulates another; and when the steam-engine had been perfected by Watt, and enabled the powerful blowing apparatus to be worked by its agency, the production of iron by means of pit-coal was rendered cheap and expeditious, and soon became enormously increased. Richard Reynolds was an interesting character. He disapproved of making charitable bequests by will, as being the foundation of enormous abuses, but held it to be the duty of each man to do all the possible good in his lifetime. Unwilling to be recognized as the giver of large sums, he employed agents to dispense his enormous benefactions. He thus sent £20,000 to London to be distributed during the distress of 1795, and kept four almoners constantly employed in Bristol, finding out cases of distress, and relieving them. He searched debtor's prisons, and when he found meritorious cases, paid the debt and procured their release. He died at Bristol in 1816, aged 81, and the poor were his chief mourners.

The discovery of Dudley, perfected by his successors, was the opening of a new and eventful era in the progress of iron manufacture, and pit-coal

came in time to save the remnant of the beautiful and famous forests of oak—the pride of England.

HENRY BESSEMER.

Steel follows iron as day succeeds night—the product of iron in its most refined and best estate. The art of making steel, as of iron, came from mysterious Asia, where it was practiced in the infancy of Oriental civilization, and instruments of war and domestic cutlery were made from ærolites—sky-descended masses of metal. The Hindoos were especially skilled in the art of making steel, as indeed they are at this day; and it has come to be pretty generally believed by such persons and scholars as have become familiar with the history of that people, that the tools with which the Egyptians covered their obelisks and temples of porphyry and syenite with hieroglyphics, were made of Indian steel, as probably no other metal was capable of executing such work. The art was known in Germany in the Middle Ages, but England then produced very little steel, and was mainly dependent for its supply of the article upon continental makers.

Among the improved processes invented of late years for the manufacture of steel, that of Bessemer is the most noted, and promises before long to effect an entire revolution in the iron and steel trade. By it the crude metal is converted, by one simple process, directly as it comes from the blast-furnace. This is effected by driving through it, while still in a molten state, several streams of atmospheric air, on which the carbon of the crude iron unites with the oxygen of the atmosphere. The temperature is greatly raised, and a violent ebulition takes place, during which, if the process is continued, that part of the carbon which appears to be mechanically mixed and diffused through the crude iron, is entirely consumed. The metal becomes thoroughly cleansed, the slag is ejected and removed, while the sulphur and other volatile matters are driven off; the result being an ingot of malleable iron of the quality of charcoal iron.

An important feature in the process is, that by stopping it at a particular stage, immediately following the boil, before the whole of the carbon has been abstracted by the oxygen, the crude iron will be found to have passed into the condition of cast-steel of ordinary quality. By continuing the process, the metal losing its carbon, it passes from hard to soft steel, thence to steely iron, and last of all to very soft iron; so that by interrupting the progress at any stage, or continuing it to the end, almost any quality of iron and steel may be obtained. One of the most valuable forms of the metal is described by Mr. Bessemer as "semi-steel," being in hardness about midway between ordinary cast-steel and soft malleable iron. The Bessemer processes are now in full operation in England and in this country, both for converting crude into malleable iron and for

producing steel; and the results have already proved of the greatest practical utility in all cases where iron and steel are extensively employed.

Like every other invention, this of Mr. Bessemer had long been pondered over and dreampt of by some reflecting iron men, for more than sixty years; but Bessemer is entitled to the merit of working out the idea, and bringing the process to perfection, by his great skill and indomitable perseverance.

STEAM-ENGINES—JAMES WATT.

Early inventors yoked wind and water to sails and wheels, and made them work machinery of various kinds; but modern inventors have availed themselves of the far more swift and powerful, yet docile force of steam, which has now laid upon it the heaviest share of the burden of toil, and indeed become the universal drudge. Coal, water, and a little oil, are all that the steam-engine, with its bowels of iron and heart of fire, needs to enable it to go on working, night and day, without sleep or rest. Yoked to machinery of almost infinite variety, the results of vast ingenuity and labor, the steam-engine pumps water, drives spindles, threshes grain, prints books, hammers iron, plows land, saws timber, drives piles, impels ships, works railways, excavates canals, and, in a word, asserts an almost unbounded supremacy over the materials which enter into the daily uses of mankind, for clothing, for labor, for defence, for household purposes, for locomotion, for food, or for instruction.

The development of the powers of the steam-engine by Watt had an extraordinary effect upon the production of iron in England. It created a largely increased demand for the article for the purpose of the shafting and machinery it was employed to drive; while at the same time it cleared pits of water which before were unworkable, and being extensively applied to the blowing of iron-furnaces and the working of the rolling-mills, it thus gave a still further impetus to the manufacture of that metal. It has brought the production of iron in England alone, to say nothing of our own and other countries, from 12,000 tons in 1750 to over 4,000,000 tons of pig-iron annually at this time—more than the entire production of all other European countries.

The steam-engine is the power, more than any other mechanical invention, which moves the industrial world to-day. All other machinery depends upon and is moved by it. It is the pendulum of industry. When it stops all stops. Neither the discovery of the mechanical power of steam nor the invention of the first engine to be worked by steam originated with Watt, as commonly supposed, but he was the wonderful genius that comprehended all prior thoughts and discoveries, and perfected and made practical an engine whose mighty energies come of water and fire.

We read of an architect in the time of Justinian who being desirious of possessing his neighbor's house at a low figure, played upon his superstition by conducting steam in leather tubes from concealed boilers, through the partition wall beneath the beam which supported his neighbor's house; and the steam being raised, the ceiling shook as if by an earthquake. Finding his house "haunted" the architect was enabled to obtain the house on very favorable terms.

Ancient toy images were made of metal, with a hollow head, which were filled with water, the eyes and mouth stopped with wooden wedges; burning coals were then placed beneath the head, steam was shortly raised which, forcing out the wedges, the steam escaped by eyes and mouth with a thick cloud and loud report.

Archimedes is stated to have constructed a "steam gun," which carried a ball a talent in weight; and on a hollow ball being full of water and placed in the fire, the steam rushed up a long pipe, and was applied to the vanes of a mill.

The discovery of the fact, that a mechanical force is produced when water is evaporated by the application of heat (the first capital step in the invention of the steam-engine) is two thousand years old, having first been pointed out by Hero of Alexandria, a hundred and twenty years before the Christian era.

In 1543 Blasco de Garay, a Spaniard, made experiments in the harbor of Barcelona to propel vessels by an engine which is described as "an apparatus for boiling a great quantity of water; in certain wheels which serve as oars; and a machine that communicated to them the steam produced by the boiling water." That it was a steam engine is apparent from the objection made to it by one Ravago, an official, that "the boiler continually exposed the vessel to an explosion.

Solomon De Caus, an eminent French engineer and mathematician, in 1615, proposed a machine, consisting of a wheel with flat vanes upon its rim, similar to the boards of a paddle wheel. The steam was to have been produced in a close vessel and made to issue with considerable force out of a tube directed against the vanes, which would cause the revolution of the wheel, the tube projecting from the mouth of the fiquer; but the steam had to pass through the atmosphere in its passage to the wheel. But this method bears no resemblance to any application of steam-power in use in engines of the present day.

Then came an intelligent and ingenious lord, the Marquis of Worcester, in the troublesome times of Charles I., who claimed the honor of being regarded as one of the chief inventors of the steam-engine. He made a successful pumping engine which would throw a constant stream of water forty feet high.

"One vessel of water, rarified by fire," he said, "driveth up forty feet of cold water, and a man that tends the work has but to turn two cocks; that one vessel of water being consumed, another begins to force and refill with cold water, and so successively; the fire being tended and kept constant, which the self-same person may likewise abundantly perform in the interim between the necessity of turning the cocks." A copy of the Marquis' specification is in the British Museum.

In 1682 Sir Samuel Moreland, Master of Mechanics to Charles II., in a paper on the steam-engine, explained his "Principles of the New Force of Fire," converting water into vapor.

The steam-engines, prior to 1710, may be regarded as steam pumps, when Newcomer made important improvements, Brindley and Smeation subsequently adding others.

But the steam-engine proper, as known to us, was born with Watt, the result of whose labors had been a harvest of wealth and prosperity, unparalleled in the history of the world.

James Watt was born at Greenock, in Scotland, January 19, 1736, and had from his birth delicate health; and as he grew up, instead of being subjected to educational restraint, was, for the most part, left at liberty to choose his own occupations and amusements. His father was a mathematical instrument-maker, and in his workshop little Watt soon found his toys. By amusing himself with the quadrant he was led to study optics and astronomy. He was found one day stretched upon the hearth, tracing with chalk, various lines and angles. "Why do you permit this child," said a friend to Watt's father, "to waste his time so? Why not send him to school?" Mr. Watt replied: "You judge him hastlly; before you condemn us ascertain how he is employed." On examining the boy, then six years of age, it was found that he was engaged in the solution of a problem of Euclid. Observing the tendency of his son's mind, Mr. Watt placed at his son's disposal a collection of tools, which he soon learned to use. He took to pieces and put together agatn and again all the children's toys which he could procure; and he employed himself in making new ones. Subsequently he constructed a little electrical machine, the sparks proceeding from which much amused the playfellows of the young invalid.

The father, who was sufficiently clear-sighted, entertained high hopes of the growing faculties of his son. More distant or less sagacious relatives were not so sanguine. One day Mrs. Muirhead, the aunt of the boy, reproaching him for what she conceived to be listless idleness, desired him to take a book, and occupy himself usefully. "More than an hour has now passed away,"

said she, "and you have not uttered a word. Do you know what you have been doing all this time? You have taken off and put on, repeatedly, the lid of the teapot; you have been holding the saucer and the spoons over the steam, and you have been endeavoring to catch the drops of water formed on them by the vapor. Is it not a shame for you to waste your time so?"

Mrs. Muirhead was little aware that this was the first experiment in the career of discovery which was subsequently to immortalize her nephew. She did not see, as many can, in the little boy, playing with the teapot, the great engineer preluding to more discoveries which were destined to confer on mankind inestimable benefits. Another relative, Mrs. Campbell, describes him watching the steam from the tea-kettle, and by means of a cup and spoon showing the condensation of steam.

Young Watt was sent to a commercial school, where he acquired the customary education; but his chief success lay in mathematics. At the age of nineteen he went to London and sought a situation. One John Morgan, a mathematical instrument maker, in Finch-lane, Cornhill, gave him employment. At the end of a year he returned to Glasgow, taking with him twenty guineas' worth of additional tools. He opened a shop as "Mathematical Instrument Maker to the University," and drew around him friends and patrons; among them the celebrated Adam Smith; Dr. Black, and John Robison. The latter said of young Watt, "I saw a workman, and expected no more; but was surprised to find a philosopher as young as myself, and always ready to instruct me."

It was at Glasgow College that Watt, experimenting on one of Newcomer's pumping engines, finally developed and brought to perfection the wonderful steam engine of to-day. He formed partnership with Dr. Roebuck and Boulton, took out patents in England and France. He visited Paris and met Lavoisier, Laplace and Fouroroy. At the expiration of their patent of seventeen years, in 1800, at the age of sixty-two, he retired from active duties, leaving two sons who continued the partnership. He purchased an estate at Heathfield, and indulged in all the pleasure of being a landed proprietor, and for nearly twenty years lived a tranquil and happy life. He died on the 19th of August, 1819, in his eighty-third year.

IRON BRIDGES—PRITCHARD—DARBY—BRUNNEL—TELFORD.

The first iron bridge ever erected was cast and made at the Coalbrookdale Works, England. Its projection as well as its erection being due to the skill and enterprise of Abraham Darby the third. I was built across the Severn,

near the old ferry between the parishes of Madely and Brothley. The company was formed, shares subscribed, and an act of Parliament obtained, in 1776, authorizing a bridge to be built "of cast-iron, stone, brick, or timber." The construction of an iron bridge was a new idea. An attempt had been made at Lyons, in France, to construct such a bridge more than twenty years before, but it had entirely failed, and a bridge of timber was erected instead.

It is not known whether the English iron masters had heard of this attempt; but even if they had, it could be of no practical use to them. Mr. Pritchard, an architect, of Shrewsbury, was first employed to prepare a design of the intended structure. Although Pritchard proposed to introduce cast iron in the arch of the bridge, which was to be of 120 feet span, it was only as a sort of key, occupying but a few feet at the crown of the arch. The sparing use of cast-iron indicates the timidity of the architect in dealing with the new material—his plan exhibiting a desire to effect a compromise between the tried and the untried in bridge-construction. But the use of iron to so limited an extent, and in such a part of the structure, was of more questionable utility; and if Pritchard's plan had been adopted, the problem of the iron bridge would still have remained unsolved. His plan, however, was set aside, and another, with the entire arch of cast-iron, was prepared under the superintendence of Abraham Darby. The bridge was built and opened for traffic in 1779, and proved a serviceable structure. This bridge is good after the lapse of a century, and will probably stand for centuries to come.

The most famous iron bridges have been built since the railroad era. The most celebrated, doubtless, is the Britannia Bridge, which carries the Chester and Holyhead Railway across the Menai Straits, It is built upon the girder principle—a tubular bridge designed by Stephenson. Its site is not far from Telford's great suspension bridge across the same waters, and was selected from the fact that there occurred a rock in the center of the stream, well adapted for the foundation of a tower.

This rock rises ten feet above low-water level, and is covered to about the same depth at high water. On this is built the central tower of the bridge, 450 feet from either shore, where rises another tower, and at a distance from each of these of 230 feet is a continuous embankment of stone 176 feet long. The towers and abutments are built with slightly sloping sides, the base of the central or Britannia tower being 62 feet by 52 feet, the width at the level where the tubes pass through it, a height of 102 feet, being reduced by the tapering form to 55 feet. The total height of the central tower is 230 feet from its rock foundation. The parapet walls of the abutments are terminated with pedestals, the

summits of which are decorated by huge lions, looking landwards. Each line of rails has a separate tube; there are four tubes, 460 feet long for the central spans, and four 230 feet long for the shorter spans at each end of the bridge. Each line of rails, in fact, traverses a continuous tube 1,513 feet in length, supported at intervals by the towers and abutments. The external height of each tube at the central tower is 30 feet, but the bottom line forms a parabolic curve, and the other extremities of the tubes are reduced to a height of 22¾ feet. The width inside is 14 feet 8 inches. In the construction of the tubes no less than 83 miles of angle-iron were employed, and the number separate bars and plates are said to be 186,000. Each of these tubes, from end to end of the bridge, contains 5,250 tons of iron. These tubes were built upon the shore, and floated upon pontoons to their positions between the towers, and raised by hydraulic power. It was four years in building, and was opened in October, 1850.

The stupendous tubular bridge, built over the St. Lawrence, at Montreal, considering the special difficulties which attended its construction, is, perhaps, unsurpassed as a specimen of engineering skill. The magnitude of the undertaking may be judged of from the following dimensions: Length of the Victoria Bridge, 9,144 feet, or 1¾ miles; length of tube, 6,592, or 1¼ miles; weight of iron in tubes, 9,044 tons; area of the surface of the iron work, 32 acres.

SUSPENSION BRIDGES

Was an idea of Engineer Telford, who in 1818, undertook to throw a bridge across the Menai Strait. The work was begun the following year. The total length of this bridge is 1,710 feet. The piers are built of grey Anglosea marble, and rise 153 feet above the high-water line, and 579 feet distant from each other. The roadway is 102 feet above the high-water level, and is divided into two carriage-ways separated by a foot-track. The time occupied in its construction was seven years, and the cost was £120,000 or about $600,000.

The Clifton suspension bridge over the Avon, near Bristol, has a wider span than any other bridge in England, and it is remarkable for the great height of its roadway. The distance between the centers of the piers—that is, the distance of the points between which the chains are suspended—is upwards of 702 feet.

The Americans have, however, outspanned all the rest of the world in their iron suspension bridge. That over the Niagara is 800 feet span, and 260 feet above the water. The suspension bridge over the Ohio river at Cincinnati, has a stride of 1,000 feet, the longest bridge in the world of one span.

The use of iron wire instead of wrought bars has enabled engineers to far exceed the spans of any bridges yet built. The tenacity per square inch, in tons, is, cast iron, 8; wrought iron, 30; iron wire, 40.

LABOR-SAVING MACHINES.

In the intricate art of iron and steel working, the largest of American industries, labor-saving machines have furnished hands of great cunning and skill. Since the invention of the hot blast and the use of anthracite coal, no person has made more valuable progress in manipulating iron than Henry Bessemer, who, by a very simple process, converts cast iron into steel. In 1855 he received a patent from the English Government. It was worthy of note that prior to this date the United States had granted a patent for the same process to an American who was slow in utilizing his discovery.

By the Bessemer process air is drawn through melted cast iron, which burns out the silicon and carbon, leaving sufficient of the carbon, when a little manganese iron is added, to change the contents of the immense converter, or crucible, into cast steel, which is run into ingots of a few pounds, or several tons. When this wonderful discovery was made, Bessemer, a worker in bronze, was in search of tougher ordnance metal. He shrewdly places the royalty very low, five dollars a ton, and millions of capital, in Europe and America, soon engage in its production. This invention reduced the cost of steel from $200 to $50, a saving of $150 per ton to the world. Of this saving of three hundred per cent. Bessemer's profit was a trifle over three per cent. His patents have now practically expired.

Steel rails thus cheapened became practicable, and substantially, the world's supply is now made by this process. The price per ton has declined from $120 in 1873 to $45 in 1877. America has eleven steel rail mills, with an annual capacity of 700,000 tons, on which, by the Bessemer process, over $100,000,000 is saved.

A brief mention of two firms will assist the reader to comprehend the immense resources and superior facilities possessed by European companies in the manufacture of iron and steel. In 1840 Messrs. Bocklow & Vaughn began the iron business at Middlesbrough, England. A dozen years ago the firm was reorganized and has grown to collossal dimensions. It has a capital of $18,250,000, twenty blast furnaces, a huge smelting plant costing nearly $2,000,000, steel mills with an annual capacity of 60,000 tons, immense iron mines, limestone quarries, fourteen colleries capable of producing 2,000,000 tons yearly, railroads, and a fleet of steamers. They employ 12,000 operatives, and their monthly pay-roll is over $400,000. In prosperous times they annually consume

Limestone,	200,000 tons.
Coal,	400,000 tons.
Coke,	500,000 tons.
Iron-stone,	750,000 tons.

Their annual production of pig iron was 300,000 tons, one-third of which was worked into finished iron.

THE KRUPP WORKS

Established in Germany in 1810, near Essen, cover a thousand acres, two hundred of which are covered with buildings, in which are 300 steam engines, and nearly 100 steam hammers. They own extensive coal pits, and over 400 iron mines, and, besides, yearly import from Spain 300,000 tons of ore. They employ about 20,000 workmen, for half of whom comfortable dwellings and boarding houses are furnished by the company, who seek to ameliorate the general welfare of all their employes. In 1872 the firm consumed

Coke,	125,000 tons.
Coal,	500,000 tons.
Water,	113,000,000 cubic feet.
Gas,	16,500 burners—155,000,000 cubic feet,

and produced 125,000 tons of cast steel. Out of steel they make axles, wheels, tires for railways, shafts for steamers, guns, gun carriages, boiler plates, etc. Herr Frederick Krupp is making preparation to build a 120 ton-steam hammer, having twelve-foot stroke. The cost of construction of this enormous tool is estimated at $1,250,000.

MACHINE DRILL.

Charles Burleigh, of Fitchburg, Mass., in 1868, finally solved the mechanical problem of a machine drill to cheapen the cost of mining and railroad tunneling. By the ingenious use of compressed air, he supplemented the earnest efforts of hundreds of workers on this important subject. Shanley & Co., of Montreal, first utilized the drill in the Hoosac Tunnel (25,081 feet long). They say one Burleigh machine, without repairs, drilled in three months upwards of a mile of rock. Hand labor would have consumed three times as much time and labor. In the construction of

THE HOOSAC TUNNEL,

the Burleigh drill saved $3,000,000. It widened and deepened Hell Gate at an immense saving to the Government. The famous Sutro Tunnel, which was finished in 1881, was begun in October, 1869. It is 20,170 feet in length, and cost nearly $4,000,000. Six of the Burleigh drills were used. For over four years blasting by hand averaged 1,300 feet annually. These drills drove the tunnel, increased in size, nearly 4,000 feet yearly.

WOOD SCREWS.

Fifty years ago wood screws were not used. The screw, with a saw-cut thread, was first used in France. In 1840 one thousand screws was the aver-

age daily product per operative, now 120,000. Machinery as facile as the human hand performs the cutting, slotting, shaving, and threading. The total daily capacity of American screw factories is estimated at 63,000 gross—over nine million screws. Of European factories, perhaps twice that number. Hand labor could never have supplied so enormous a number.

HORSE SHOES.

Blacksmiths, for five dollars, will furnish labor to make seven dozen horse shoes. The same labor, supplemented by machinery, will turn out over 700 dozen. The annual saving would not be less than $12,000 if all the people in the country used machine-made shoes. Horse-shoe nails cost seventy-five cents per pound if made by hand. A better, machine-made, is sold by the Putman Company at thirty cents. Blacksmiths testify that they can make larger wages by using the machine-made shoe and nail. Nearly 5,000,000 kegs (one hundred pounds each) common

CUT NAILS AND SPIKES

Were made by the 4,000 nail machines of the United States last year. Messrs. A. Field & Son of Taunton, Mass., run a factory with a daily capacity of 40,000,000 tacks and nails. Tacks are made by a single machine, at the rate of 10,000 in sixty minutes. Shoe nails, 450,000 in the same time. This firm has made tacks so very small that 5,100 only weigh an ounce.

RIFLES.

At the Providence Tool Company's Works, Rhode Island, 1,000 rifles are finished daily. This Company made for the Turkish Government 600,000 Peabody-Martini rifles, the largest foreign contract for guns. This rifle is identical with the Martini-Henry, used by the British regulars and militia. The Union Metalic Cartridge Company of Bridgeport, Conn., has manufactured over 1,000,000 a day.

The Ottoman Government, in late years, has taken twenty-nine cargoes of our guns, and ammunition valued at $27,000,000, and as recently as 1881 a steamer took out from New Haven for Constantinople, a cargo of 75,000, and 20,000,000 cartridges, valued at $2,000,000. The Eastern war was fought by the Turks and Russians with American machine-made ammunition. The United States can, if she will, secure the foreign trade in ordnance, guns, cartridges and projectiles.

CLOTHING.

The rapidity with which the farmer sows seed, and gathers food, and the multiplicity of hands employed in working of ores and metals, is scarcely more wonderful than the celerity with which labor-saving machinery prepares all

kinds and quantities of clothing. Fifty years ago the cobbler "whipped the cat" and worked in families. Then, an average shoemaker, by laboring fifteen hours a day, could make 200 pairs of boots in twelve months. Now machinery does the cutting, forming, lasting, channeling, chamfering, pegging, sewing, heeling, trimming, and finishing, eighty-five per cent. of the entire work. Sturtevant's pegging-machine drives per minute 900 pegs, cut from a wooden strip 100 feet long. Formerly the shoemakers of New England annually drove with a hammer 450,000 bushels of shoe pegs, costing about seventy-five cents a bushel. Last year machinery sewed 45,000,000, and pegged 55,000,000 pairs of boots and shoes. A gang of the men, with machinery, make 500 pairs of pegged shoes in a day. The operatives of the New England shoe factories average annually 2,600 pairs of boots and shoes each, an increase, in half a century, of 1,300 per cent. The 2,000 patents granted in this business, have revolutionized the trade. Small, scattered shops have been concentrated, workingmen centralized and classified, and compensation advanced from fifty to one hundred per cent.

The aggregate wages are about $50,000,000. The annual production is over $200,000,000, and the boot and shoe trade is exceeded only by iron, flouring mill products, and lumber. The export of boots and shoes to Europe and South America is rapidly increasing.

Mr. Bally, a Swiss gentleman of more than ordinary intelligence and capacity, visited our Centennial as Commissioner from industrious Switzerland. He resides at Schoenenworth, and is the largest shoe manufacturer in Europe. He has visited the United States several times, and was prompted to hire American mechanics to fit up his immense factory with American patent machinery. After several months' experiment, he was brought almost to despair by the fact that Massachusetts shoes were delivered to the trade in Switzerland, *cheaper* than he could manufacture them. He immediately wrote a pamphlet to arouse his countrymen and demand a patent system for his Government, claiming that Americans, by ever improving their machinery, by their quicker and better use of the same, could surpass Europeans, even though wages in America were higher. Women's gaiter boots, better sewed and finished, are sold to the trade, notwithstanding an advance of 50 per cent. in material, for $18 per dozen pairs. The price of hand-made work would not be less than $40. The annual saving to the general public on boots and shoes cannot be less than $150,000,000. The patentees receive as royalties less than three per cent. of the gains. In fact all patents are comparatively short lived, and speedily become the property of the people.

SPINNING.

The distaff and spindle, which Penolope used for Ulysses, was not improved until 1510, when a Frenchman made the first spinning wheel. In 1769 Arkwright gave us the spinning frame. A day's work on the old fashioned spinning wheel of New England was twelve skeins, or over three miles of thread, to spin which five miles must be walked. Now a girl, without walking, can operate eight hundred spindles, and make in a day nearly twenty-one hundred miles of thread, reaching from Boston to Chicago and return. Over a thousand miles of thread have been spun by machinery from a single pound of cotton. In 1774 Edmund Cartwright, of England, invented a loom for weaving cotton cloth. In 1810 the marvellous Jacquard loom appeared in France. In 1814 the first mill in the United States for converting raw cotton into finished cloth, was constructed in Waltham, Mass. Many valuable improvements have been added by Crompton, Knowles, and others, until now one operative can weave with eight looms 330 yards of cloth in ten hours. In the same time our mothers wove only *three* yards.

LOOMS,

for weaving fancy woolens and cottons, or ginghams, were invented by Crompton and Bigelow. Thirty years ago Bigelow constructed a power-loom which enabled him to weave seventy-five yards of five-frame Brussels carpet, superior in execution to any hand-work on exhibition in London, in 1851. Five yards by hand was a day's work. During the rebellion cotton sold as high as $1.85 per pound, which to-day sells for 12 cents. Brown sheetings and prints sold then at 45 and 20 cents per yard, now at 6½ and 4 cents, respectively. Cotton cloth has been sold to the trade as low as 3½ cents per yard. Material of tasteful design for a dress costs sixty cents.

THE AMOSKEAG COMPANY,

of Manchester, New Hampshire, organized in 1831, is probably the largest corporation manufacturing textile fabrics in the world. They use fifteen turbine water-wheels, and a thousand horse-power steam-engine, or a total of forty-four hundred horse-power, equal to the force of an army of 26,400 working men. The Amoskeag Company use

Spindles,	150,000
Looms,	5,000
Bales of Cotton, annually,	30,000
Tons of Coal, annually,	800,000
Cubic feet of Gas, annually,	16,000,000
Operatives employed,	5,000
Monthly pay-roll, in good times,	$150,000
Yards of Cloth made annually,	86,000,000

Their daily product is 100,000 yards, or nearly 30 yards a second. This company yearly spins sixty million miles of thread—enough to wind the globe twenty-four hundred times. Their domestic and tickings, denims and stripes, sheetings and drillings, ginghams and fancy dress fabrics, are sold in the markets of the world. For forty-two years the Amoskeag Company has earned an average annual profit of over fifteen per cent. Capital, $3,000,000.

THE NELSON KNITTING MACHINE

is a marvel of industry. It begins at the top of the stocking, knits down, widening and narrowing, shapes the heel with a changed stitch, and finishes at the end of the toe with a single thread, and immediately commences the next, and so on. At Rockport, Illinois, a boy runs twelve Nelson machines, which knit weekly 5,600 pairs of hose, and in three or four colors, if desired. The boy's wages are four dollars a week, making the cost of knitting, per pair, one-sixth of a mill, or sixty pairs for a cent.

THE SEWING MACHINE

was invented in 1834, by Walter Hunt, of New York. Twelve years later Elias Howe, Jr., patented that which Hunt had invented. As Columbus discovered America and Americus Vespucius gave name to the Continent, so Hunt invented the celebrated lock-stitch machine, and Howe appropriated both honors and profits. His brother, A. B. Howe, sums up Elias' merits: "His career as a builder of sewing machines, ended where it began with constructing three impracticable models." In in 1851 Isaac M. Singer took out patents for making inter-locked stich. The machine manufactured by the Singer Company has a commanding reputation in all parts of the civilized world. Over a quarter of a million of these machines were sold in 1876. Allen B. Wilson invented a device known as the "four-motion-feed," also the unique "rotary hook," both of which inventions all the larger companies were obliged to use, and pay royalties, which richly remunerated him. Singer, a little more than twenty years ago, was poor and in debt. During the last ten years of his life he resided abroad, indulging in a princely expenditure. When he died, in 1865, his wealth was estimated at ten millions.

THREE THOUSAND PATENTS

have been granted on Sewing Machines. The product in the United States in 1876 was about 600,000 machines. In Europe possibly 100,000 more. In 1870, 12,394 were used in the manufacture of boots and shoes alone. Women earn twice as much by the machine as by hand, and the number of tailors in this country has increased one hundred per cent. within the last twenty years. The Sewing Machine appropriated by Howe might have been utilized a dozen years

before, and a fortune saved to Hunt, had not his wife ignorantly objected to its introduction, thinking, as others did, that it would throw all the sewing women out of employment.

THE ELECTRIC TELEGRAPH.

When Franklin established the identity of lightning and electricity, little did he dream that this subtile fluid would be utilized to annihilate distance for mankind. Governments and their representatives, business houses and their agents, practically sit in the same whispering gallery. As early as 1729 the discovery was made that an electrical shock was transmitted through conducting media with great rapidity, but the principle was of little benefit to the public until 1844, when Professor Samuel F. B. Morse built the first telegraph line between Washington and Baltimore. The honors awarded to Morse are largely due to the late Professor Joseph Henry, the real inventor of the sound instrument at present in universal use. It is true that Morse improved an alphabet, now discarded, and added a few minor details; but it is claimed for Henry that in 1830 he operated in Albany a mile and a half of sound telegraphy, years prior to Morse's acquaintance with the subject. Within thirty-five years the globe has been covered with a net-work of telegraphs and ocean cables. The Western Union Company, in 1877, (and largely increased since) operated:

Miles of line,	76,955
Miles of wire,	194,323
Number of offices,	7,500
Capital,	41,073,000
Profits,	3,141,127

Consolidations and watering, of recent date, make the company's nominal capital $80,000,000.

At the close of 1876 Great Britain, Germany, France and Austria operated;

Miles of line,	92,272
Miles of wire,	322,816
Total messages,	39,931,951
Total receipts,	13,313,437

THE FIRST OCEAN CABLE

was laid in 1851, between Dover and Calais, and is 25 nautical miles in length. From this small beginning a magficent system of submarine telegraphy has grown till it embraces 569 cables, with a total length of 63,990 nautical miles. Companies own 149 cables; governments 420 cables. Seventeen cables—five across the Atlantic belong to the Anglo-American Company; capital, $35,000,-

000. Thirty-nine cables connecting England and her Indian possessions are owned by the Eastern Sub-marine Company, capital $6,500,000; the West India and Panama, $9,500,000; other organizations, less amounts. An aggregate of a hundred millions is invested in channels of thought under the sea.

When Cyrus W. Field landed the first cable successfully at New Foundland, binding the two continents together, only 3,000 miles of short cables had been laid in previous years. To-day the sub-marine telegraph in use would form a tripple cable round the earth. All distant lands, and islands of the sea, are being grouped under the civilizing influence of Christianity. The telegraph is the lightning messenger of the Nineteenth Century.

SHIP-BUILDING—IRON STEAMERS.

Ship-building, of all the great industries, exerts the most important influence upon the welfare and integrity of the British Empire. A mighty navy with an immense merchant marine have become absolute necessities. Naval architecture has shared in the world's progress of rich developments. Steam, iron, and steel have worked an entire revolution. The nation that builds the best ships leads the world's commerce. This was true of the Genoese and Venetians and later of the Portuguese, Spaniards and Dutch. About the middle of the Seventeenth century Holland possessed 20,000 sea-going vessels; as many as were owned by a dozen European countries, including England. A thousand new ships were built annually. During the French war, the English navy swept the seas, and at its close, her merchant marine, numbering 21,000 ships, with an aggregate tonnage larger than all the fleets of Europe, gained a supremacy which has been jealously maintained. Twenty years ago, ship-building in the United States advanced at a greater rate than in Great Britain. In 1861 the United States tonnage was 5,500,000, British, 5,900,000. The four years of civil war almost paralyzed American ship building. We are surprised at Great Britain's vast shipping interest and deplore the smallness of our own. The comparison stands thus:

	SHIPS.	STEAMSHIPS.	TONNAGE.
Great Britain, ...	17,765	3,132	8,810,841
United States, ...	6,307	542	2,820,763

Her vessels exceed those of the United States in number and tonnage over 300 per cent. In fact, she owns half of the shipping of the civilized world.

THE GREAT CENTERS

Of ship-building in Great Britain are on the six rivers, the Clyde, Tyne, Wear, Tees, Mersey and Thames. There were launched in 1873 on the Clyde,

143 vessels, mostly iron, and valued at thirty million dollars. At the beginning of 1877, there were building on the Clyde 127 iron vessels. We built in the United States, during the entire year of 1877, only 7 iron steamers. In the same year 576 vessels were built in the ship-yards of England and Scotland, mostly of iron, few of wood and some of steel. An average of 400 men are employed by a single firm, Messrs. John Elder & Co., and the annual out-put at times has equaled the entire English fleet which vanquished the Spanish Armada in 1588. Iron-clad and unarmored war ships are also built for most of the other European powers, Brazil, Chili, Peru and Japan.

At the time Watt perfected the steam-engine he was obliged to use hammered copper, or cast-iron for his boiler. The process of puddling and rolling iron-plate made it possible to develop the utility of steam and to construct iron ships, iron bridges and railways. A little later a canal boat was built from five-sixteenth inch iron plate, which carried a cargo of three times its own weight to Birmingham. This boat proved to be the pioneer of our wonderful modern shipping. Next the scheme of iron hulls for river and coasting steamers was advocated by Sir Charles Napier. The scarcity of wood and the abundance of iron ore in the British Isles facilitated this new industry.

THE FIRST IRON STEAMER

Which accomplished an ocean voyage was built by the Messrs. Laird Bros., famous also as the builders of the "Alabama." In 1838 the first iron steamship crossed the Atlantic, and initiated a traffic which, in forty years, has grown to be gigantic. In the following year, Brunnel, the famous civil engineer, constructed of iron the "Great Britain," which was 322 feet in length. The iron steamers on the Atlantic range from 400 to 500 feet long, with a tonnage varying from 3,000 to 5,000. A little more than twenty years ago Brunnel built the monster "Great Eastern." Length, 680 feet, breadth, 82½ feet, and depth, 58 feet. Engines of 12,000 horse-power turned two large side paddle-wheels and a huge propeller. Additional motive power was received from 60,000 square feet of canvas carried on five masts. The crew numbered 400, and the leviathan had capacity for 4,000 passengers and 20,000 tons of cargo, sufficient to load a dozen passenger and a hundred long freight trains. In an emergency she could carry 10,000 troops. The "Great Eastern" has been of immense service in laying submarine cables.

"Iron-ships are contrary to nature," said a naval architect, unmindful for the moment, of the familiar principle that a floating body must displace a weight of water equal to its own. Even many kinds of wood, bulk for bulk, are heavier than water, and sink. The hulls of iron ships are even lighter than those of wooden ships of equal capacity. A wooden hull must be quite

as heavy as the burden it bears, while iron hulls often carry twice their own weight. This very important advantage explains, in part, the disuse of wood and great favor of iron and steel.

The English navy numbers about 200 ships in commission, which carry 1,650 guns, and 60,000 sailors and marines, etc., are employed. One-third of the navy are either iron-clad or constructed entirely of iron and steel. The army, exclusive of soldiers serving in India, numbers 135,000 men. Total average expense of army and navy, $135,000,000 annually. If vast navies have been necessary as a defense for Great Britain, so they have also been the very means of acquiring intimate knowledge of, and extending commerce around the world.

A FEW FACTS ABOUT PATENTS.

The remarkable prosperity of the North is largely due to its inventive ability, which has been fostered in the highest degree by the wise patent laws of our Government. Historically the patent system arose 1625 in England from the "Statute of Monopolies" consent to which was extorted from James the First, by the House of Commons, not because it created monopolies, but because it destroyed them. Thus patent laws became part of the English Constitution, and in this country were first adopted by States; afterwards authority was incorporated into the Constitution itself.

For eighty-eight years our patent laws have been in operation, and are based upon two things. First. A provision of the Constitution that, Congress shall have "power to promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries. Second. Upon one of the most deeply seated and wide felt springs of human action, the love of gain, which is ever active in the human heart. From 1790 to 1836 10,020 patents were granted. In the last forty-two years over 200,000 have been issued; mostly to citizens residing north of "Mason and Dixon's Line."

In 1877 Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio and Illinois obtained 8,199 patents, one to every 1,855 citizens. The two Carolinas, Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi and Kentucky secured only 381; one to every 16,028 citizens. The comparison certainly indicates eight times as much inventive capacity developed in the North as at the South. Patents usually are spoken of by well informed people as a "New England production," but the Patent Commissioners affirm that in 1877 the six Western States—Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota and Wisconsin, took out 3,458 patents, or forty per cent more than New England (2,479). Preserve the patent laws, and the brain and wealth of the great North will control Congress till the United States shall equal in power and civilization the combined nations of the globe.

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NUMBER TWO.

WONDERS OF GEOLOGY AND BOTANY.

Speak to the Earth and it shall teach thee.—JOB.

LOUIS AGASSIZ.

He communicated not only knowledge, but the love of it.—WHIPPLE.

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SATURDAY EVENING, - - - - - - DECEMBER 1, 1883.

SECOND ENTERTAINMENT.

MUSICAL PRELUDE, from 6:45 to 7:15. BY THE EDUCATIONAL BUREAU ORCHESTRA.

PROGRAMME.

1. March—American Exposition..E. Beyer. 2. Overture—Twilight Hour..E. Boettger.
3. Gavotte....J. Rixner. 4. Medley—Southern Plantation....E. Boettger.
5. Galop—Jolly Fellows.....Beyer.

LECTURE PRELUDE, from 7:15 to 7:45, - - - - REV. PHILIP S. MOXOM.

SUBJECT: "His Level Best."

SINGING SCHOOL, 7:45 to 8:00, - - Conducted by PROF. N. COE STEWART.

☞ Audience please stand first five minutes. ☜

Prof. CARROLL CUTLER, D.D., President of Western Reserve University, will preside.

LECTURE, 8:00 to 9:30, - - - - - BY MR. WILLIAM I. MARSHALL.

SUBJECT: "Wonders of the Far West."

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Map of Western Half of United States.
2. Snowy Range in Colorado.
3.* Union Passenger Station, Denver.
4. View on Larimer Street, Denver.
5. Inspiration Point, Clear Creek Canon.
6. Middle Park.
7. Switch-Back Railroad.
8. Este's Park.
9.* Hydraulic Mining.
10. Leadville.
11.* Mount of the Holy Cross.
12.* Toltec Gorge.
13.* Royal Gorge, Canon of the Arkansas.
14. Pueblo of Taos.
15.* Cliff Dwelling.
16. Gateway of Garden of the Gods.
17.**Cathedral Spires in Garden of the Gods.
18.* Castle Rock, Green River City.
19.**Profile in Echo Canon.
20.* Witch Rocks in Echo Canon.
21.* Mouth of Echo Canon.
22. Ogden.
23.* Great Salt Lake.
24. Salt Lake City.
25. Zion's Co-operative Mercantile Inst.
26. Camp Douglas.
27. Bee Hive House.
28. Temples of Rio Virgin.
29.* Candelabrum Cactus.
30. Humboldt Canon.
31.* Cactus in Bloom.
32.* Lake Tahoe.
33. Nick of the Woods.
34. Snow Shads.
35.* Sugar Pine.
36. Mount Shosta.
37. Mount St. Helena.
38. San Francisco.
39. Mrs. Hopkins' House.
40. Palace Hotel.
41. Baldwin Hotel.
42. Cliff House and Seal Rocks.
43. Chinese Restaurant.
44. The Alameda at St. Jose.
45.* Hotel del Monte, Monterey.
46. Carmel Mission.
47.* Live Oak.
48. Result of Woodpecker's Industry.
49. Yosemite Valley from Glacier Point.
50.* The Snow Plant.
51. Yosemite from Inspiration Point.
52. El Capitan.
53. Yosemite Falls in Summer.
54.* Yosemite Falls in Winter.
55.* Yosemite Valley from Union Point.
56.* Jacob's Ladder.
57.* Mirror View of Mt. Watkins.
58.**Nevada Falls.
59.* Wawona.
60.* The Yucca.
61. Avenue of Orange Trees.
62. San Fernando Oil Wells.
63. Sentinel Rock.
64. South End of Upper Geyser Basin.
65. Crater of Old Faithful Geyser.
66. Eruption of Old Faithful Geyser.
67.* Castle Geyser and Crystal Spring.
68. Pearl Spring.
69. Craters of Grand and Turban Geysers.
70.* Successful Hunters.
71.* Sunrise on Yellowstone Lake.
72. Lower Fall of Yellowstone.
73.* Grand Canon of Yellowstone.
74. Fall of East Fork of Gardiner's River.
75.**Giant's Gateway.
76.**West Shore of Gollatin Lake.
77.* Upper Basins of Mammoth Hot Springs.
78. Leaf Form in Lime.
79.* Cap of Liberty.

Views with one star (*) are colored; with two stars (**) are by moonlight.

NOTICE.—December 8th, Saturday evening, Third Entertainment, JOHN B. GOUGH, Esq. Subject, "The Powers That Be." New.

TALKERS are no good doers.—*Shakespeare.*

DO THE duty which lies nearest to thee.—*Goethe.*

KEEP cool, and you command everybody.—*St. Just.*

IN life, as in chess, forethought wins.—*Charles Buxton.*

HEAVEN ne'er helps the man who will not act.—*Sophocles.*

NEVER contract a friendship with a man that is not better than thyself.—*Confucius.*

HABITS are soon assumed; but, when we strive to strip them off, 'tis being flayed alive.—*Cowper.*

"HUSBAND, are you shaving?" Face lathered; scarcely able to speak: "No; I am blacking my boots!"

AN old Spanish saying full of sense and of general application: Grandfather, farmer; father, trader; son, gentleman; grandson, beggar.

A REALLY great man is known by three signs: Generosity in the design, humanity in the execution, and moderation in success.—*Bismarck.*

A NEW YORK engraver recently made this mistake: "Mr. and Mrs.——— respectfully request your presents at the marriage of their daughter."

"LET us play we are married," said Edith, "and I will bring my dolly and say: 'See baby, papa.'" "Yes," replied Johnny, "and I will say: 'Don't bother me now; I want to look through the paper.'"

A YOUNG man having asked a girl if he might go home with her from singing class and been refused, said: "You're as full of airs as a musical box." "Perhaps so," she retorted; "but, if I am, I don't go with a crank."

"YES," said Mrs, Brownsmith, "I want a good girl, and possibly you might do; but have you had any experience?" "Ixparience, is it?" Faith, and haven't Oi been in no less than twinty families during the last month?"

"MR. WHITE," said a lawyer to a witness in the box, "at the time these papers were executed you were speculating, were you not?" "Yes, sir." "You were in oil?" "I was." "And what are you in now?" "Bankruptcy," was the solemn reply.

"PLEASE, mum," called the chambermaid from the head of the stairs, "there's a man up here." "Who is it?" "A porch-climber." "What does he want?" "He's after your diamonds and jewelry." "Oh, is that all? Come down and let him alone; my husband is perfectly able to buy 'em back, and it will make an attractive item in the newspapers."

THE MARSEILLAISE HYMN.

Moderato.

1. Ye sons of Freedom' wake to glo - ry, Hark, hark, what myriads bid you
2. Now, now the dang'rous storm is roll-ing, Which treach'rous Kings confederate
3. O LIB - ER-TY! can man re - sign thee? Once having felt thy generous

rise, Your children, wives and grandsires hoary; Be-hold their tears and hear their
raise, The dogs of war, let loose, are howling, And lo! our walls and cit - ies
flame, Can dungeons, bolts and bars confine thee! Or whips thy no-ble spir - it

cries, Be-hold their tears and hear their cries; Shall hateful ty -rants mis-chief
blaze, And lo! our wall and cit-ies blaze, And shall we base - ly view the
tame, Or whips thy no - ble spir-it tame? Too long the world has wept be -

breeding With hireling hosts, a ruf-fian band, Af-fright and des - o - late the
ru - in; While lawless force with guilty stride, Spread des-o - la - tion far and
wailing, That falsehood's dagger tyrants yield; But freedom is our Sword and

land..... While peace and lib - er - ty lie bleed-ing.
wide..... With crimes and blood his hand em - bru - ing.
Shield... And all their arts are un - a - vail - ing.

CHORUS IN UNISON.

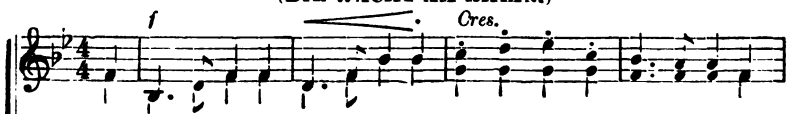
ff

To arms, to arms ye brave! Th' a-veng - ing sword un-sheath!

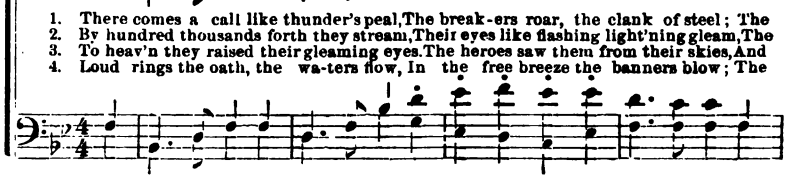
March on! March on! All hearts re-solved on Vic - to - ry or death.

THE GUARD ON THE RHINE.

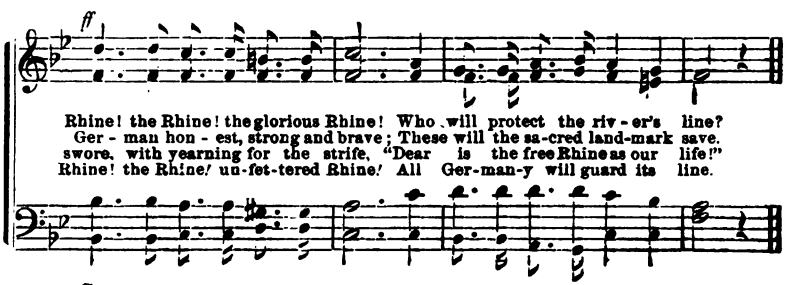
(DIE WACHT AM RHEIN.)



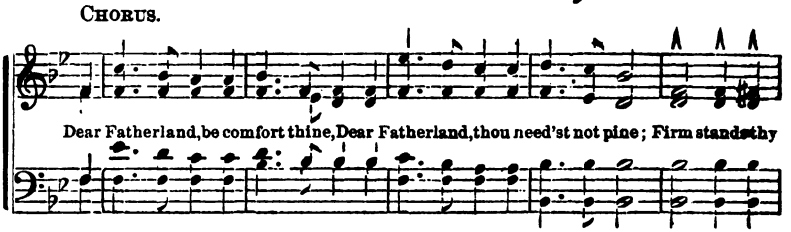
1. There comes a call like thunder's peal, The break-ers roar, the clank of steel; The
2. By hundred thousands forth they stream, Their eyes like flashing light'ning gleam, The
3. To heav'n they raised their gleaming eyes. The heroes saw them from their skies, And
4. Loud rings the oath, the wa-ters flow, In the free breeze the banners blow; The



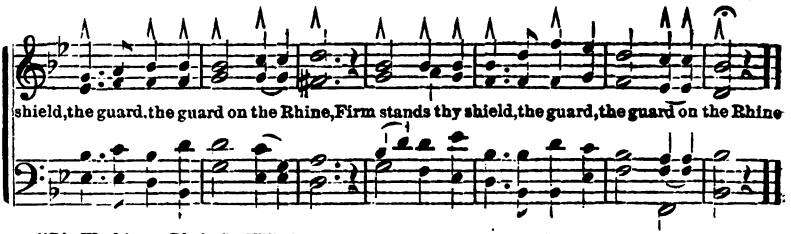
Rhine! the Rhine! the glorious Rhine! Who will protect the riv-er's line?
Ger-man hon-est, strong and brave; These will the sa-cred land-mark save.
swore, with yearning for the strife, "Dear is the free Rhine as our life!"
Rhine! the Rhine! un-fet-tered Rhine! All Ger-man-y will guard its line.



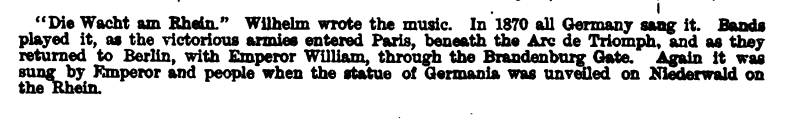
CHORUS.



Dear Fatherland, be comfort thine, Dear Fatherland, thou need'st not pine; Firm stands thy



shield, the guard, the guard on the Rhine, Firm stands thy shield, the guard, the guard on the Rhine



"Die Wacht am Rhein." Wilhelm wrote the music. In 1870 all Germany sang it. Bands played it, as the victorious armies entered Paris, beneath the Arc de Triomph, and as they returned to Berlin, with Emperor William, through the Brandenburg Gate. Again it was sung by Emperor and people when the statue of Germania was unveiled on Niederwald on the Rhein.

WONDERS OF GEOLOGY.

BY PROF. G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

I. INTRODUCTORY—GEOLOGICAL ACTION OF WATER.

THE earth is chiefly interesting as the abode of man, and in its adaptation to his varied physical and intellectual wants. That nature had kept a diary, and that an autobiography of the earth was preserved in the rocks, was not suspected by the ancient world. It has been one of the greatest achievements of modern times to collect and interpret the scattered fragments of this long-neglected volume. The solid portions of the world preserve abundant marks of the processes by which they took shape. The agencies at work to produce present changes afford the means of interpreting those marks.

Four agencies are prominent in rearranging the material of which the earth is formed, and in changing its external appearance, namely: water, wind, heat, and life.

It needs no argument to prove that the external framework of the globe is composed of rock. Ordinarily, the loose soil upon the surface is but a few feet deep; in extreme cases the under-lying rock is reached only at a depth of a few hundred feet. The soil itself is nothing else than disintegrated rock, resulting from processes we see going on everywhere. Along the banks of mountain streams and the shores of lakes, and bays and oceans, and at the mouth of every river, we may see in progress the steps preliminary to the formation of pudding-stone, sandstone, and slate rocks. Fragments of the cliffs, broken off by the ceaseless action of the waves and weather, are strown in the bed of the mountain brook, or along the shore of every large body of water. The water itself does not wear the fragments to any great extent; but it moves the stones against each other, and so their corners are rubbed off, and pebbles and sand are produced. These are sorted by the action of the waves and currents, the finest material being carried farthest from shore into deeper and stiller water, or being deposited by the overflow of the stream upon the intervales. At the mouth of all rivers there is also a constant accumulation of sand and gravel. Every large river has its delta, and every small one its sand bar.

The reason of this is, that the power of water to transport material depends upon the rapidity of the current. A very swift current will move stones that are several feet through, while in a sluggish stream only the finest material is carried along. As soon as a stream, loaded with sediment, reaches the lake, or the sea, its current is checked, and its transporting power greatly diminished; hence it must land its heavier freight of sand and gravel, and as they have no independent powers of locomotion, they remain near the mouth of the river, to obstruct navigation or to take part in building up the advancing coast-line. The finer material is deposited as mud at a greater distance from the shore. An interesting illustration of this process can be witnessed in Lake Geneva. The mountain streams which empty into it are charged with sediment, and have all built up extensive deltas, and they carry an immense amount of mud into the lake; but this all settles in the still water, and the river Rhone, which forms the outlet of the lake is perfectly clear.

By this means new land is continually forming; and from the law of motion in fluids the sediment is deposited in a triangular form, shaped like the Greek letter delta, thus $\triangle$; hence its name. The delta formed by the river Nile is now one hundred miles long by two hundred wide. The delta of the Mississippi covers nearly fourteen thousand square miles, an area considerably larger than that of Maryland. The deltas of the Ganges and Brahmapootra unite, and extend two hundred and fifty miles in one direction and two hundred in another. Besides the sediment forming the delta of a river, much that is very fine goes far out to sea.

Why is it that though all the rivers run into the sea, yet the sea is not full? Water evaporates, and is carried by the winds back again to the mountains, and so continues its ceaseless round. But the sediment of the sea does not evaporate, and so the sea is actually filling up. Every stream that flows towards the ocean is wearing down the continents and silting up the sea. In process of time, if forces continue to act as now, every lake will be filled with sediment, and every mountain and plain brought down to the level of the sea. It is evident also that the present condition of things cannot always have existed, or this dead uniformity would already have been secured.

The amount of sediment annually carried into the sea by rivers is immense. Careful estimates show that 7,000,000,000 cubic feet of sediment are transported by the Mississippi every year. The Yellow River in China, so named from the color of the mud it contains, annually carries 17,000,000,000 cubic feet of solid material to the sea. The Chinese Sea oocupies 200,000 square miles—about the size of Texas—and is on an average one hundred and fifty-six feet deep. The amount of sediment brought into this sea by three rivers is sufficient

to convert it into dry land in 36,000 years. Enough comes down every year to form an island containing six square miles, and one hundred and fifty-six feet deep. The Mississippi River drains an area of 1,237,000 square miles—nearly one-half of the whole United States; yet the amount of sediment is so great that in 5,000 years enough material will be carried to the Gulf to lower the entire area of the Mississppi Valley one foot.

It is interesting to think of the sources from which the soil of a delta is gathered. To the delta of the Mississippi, New York and Pennsylvania, and all the intervening States and Territories to the Rocky Mountains contribute their quotas. The fertile delta of the Nile has been transported from the center of Africa; while that of the Ganges is the wash of the Himalaya Mountains, hundreds of miles away. The mud that discolers the brooks with which we are familiar, is hastening to help build up a new continent, or to add to the old, whenever the stream shall reach the sea. It is only a question of time when the mud brought down by the streams of Northern Ohio shall convert Lake Erie into dry land.

II. GEOLOGICAL ACTION OF WIND.

The wind is a more important geological agency than most people suppose. Sand is drifted by it into hills of great extent and considerable height. The southern shore of Long Island, and almost the whole coast of New Jersey, are lined for nearly two hundred miles with such sand-hills, which are from five to fifty feet high. On the southern shores of Lake Michigan similar sand-hills may be seen, and they are common in Denmark and England, and on the islands of the Pacific. Sometimes sand is drifted to such an extent that farms and houses and villages are buried beneath it. Eccles, in England, has thus been destroyed since the seventeenth century. All that can now be seen of the ancient village church is its tower protruding through the drifting sand. In Cornwall, Eng,, a considerable tract of country has been covered with sand drifted several hundred feet high.

The drifting sand of Egypt has been the means of preserving many of the monuments of that interesting country. The sand that surrounded and filled the great temples of Thebes and Memphis is so fine and dry that its preserving power is almost perfect.

In the neighborhood of deserts, sand storms are frequent and dangerous. Whole caravans are said to have been overwhelmed by them.

Dust-showers are also frequent in some places remote from deserts. Very fine dust settles slowly in still air; but if it be moving, the dust may be carried

a long distance before lighting on the earth. Showers of reddish dust occasionally fall upon ships far out at sea. Mr. Darwin describes one such storm, encountered by him near the Cape Verdes, which was estimated to be sixteen hundred miles broad. A similar shower, which passed over the southern part of France, in 1846, is estimated by Ehrenberg to have deposited nearly a million pounds of dust. On examination he found that about one-eighth of it consisted of microscopic organisms, many of which belong in South America; thus showing that the wind had blown the dust across the Atlantic. Nor is this incredible; for, in 1835, volcanic dust was blown from Gautemala to Jamaica, a distance of eight hundred miles. It is thought by some geologists, that many of the most extensive and fertile plains in China have been formed by dust brought several hundred miles by the winds which blow from the deserts in the interior. Our western prairiès have even been supposed to be due to a similar cause. Various reasons render this latter supposition improbable; but for days at a time, in Western Iowa, the air is sometimes so full of dust that the sun is scarcely visible; and it occasionally drifts in the roads and fills the ditches as if it were snow.

III. GEOLOGICAL ACTION OF HEAT.

The study of volcanoes helps us to explain many striking facts in geology. Existing volcanoes present all stages of activity. From some, smoke and flame and ashes and lava are continually pouring forth; while others act intermittently. Others still have been quiet so long that we call them "extinct." But some volcanoes have revived after such long periods of rest, that there must, in any case, be doubt whether an extinct volcano is really dead, or only sleeping. For several hundred years before the time of Christ, Mount Vesuvius, in Southern Italy, gave no sign of activity; but from A.D. 63 to the present time it has had frequent eruptions. The cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum were buried beneath ashes from Vesuvius, A.D. 79. Since then there have been several periods, of one hundred years or more, when there were no signs of volcanic activity in this mountain. At such times it has not been uncommon for brigands and outlaws to occupy the crater as a fortress; thus making it more terrible when at rest than when in commotion.

Mount Hecla, in Iceland, is one of the best known of volcanoes. In 1783 an eruption occurred in which two streams of lava poured forth, one forty miles in length and the other fifty. These streams were from seven to fifteen miles wide, and they were ordinarily one hundred feet deep, and in some places six hundred.

Jorullo, in Mexico, is one of the most remarkable instances of intermittent volcanic action. Up to 1759 the site, where the volcanic cone now

stands, was occupied by a fertile plain, surrounded by hills composed of very ancient volcanic rocks. In that year, amid earthquake shocks, a chasm opened in the plain, from which flames issued, and ashes and lava were ejected in sufficient quantities to form, in a short time, a mountain sixteen hundred feet high, Since then there have been no eruptions; and the lower flanks of the mountain are now covered with trees and the surrounding country is cultivated as formerly.

The distribution of volcanoes is well worthy of attention.

The Pacific Ocean is almost completely surrounded by them. Volcanic peaks rise as sentinels all along the mountain-chain running from Patagonia to Alaska, and thence around through Kamschatka, down the Asiatic coast to the Malay Archipelago. Nearly all the islands, also, of the Pacific Ocean either contain active volcanoes or are of volcanic origin, while in the interior of continents there are few volcanoes.

From this wide and peculiar distribution of volcanoes it is inferred that their cause is very deep seated, and that it is in some way connected with the sea. Indeed, this wide distribution confirms the theory that the interior of the earth is a highly heated mass, and that volcanoes are vent-holes to it. Their activity is doubtless often due to the water which leaks through the solid rocks, and upon reaching the heated mass is turned to steam; and thus an eruption may be compared to the explosion of a boiler. Great volumes of steam often issue from their craters, and in some cases floods of water are vomited forth; though sometimes these floods are produced by the sudden melting of snow upon the sides of the volcano.

The great heat of the interior of the earth is also indicated by borings, in which the temperature is found to increase as we descend to greater and greater depths. The average rate of increase is about one degree Fahrenheit for every fifty feet of descent, so that at the depth of eighty-one hundred feet it would be hot enough to boil water, and at a depth of about thirty miles to melt iron. Probably, however, iron is not melted at that depth, since it is under greater pressure than on the surface, and its melting point is, in consequence, a good deal higher.

The evidence of ancient volcanic action is found in all the older rocks, and in many that are of recent origin. Many islands in the ocean are nothing but piles of volcanic material thrown up from craters in the bottom of the sea. The Azores, the Canaries, St. Helena, and many other islands, have been built up by volcanic action from great depths. In 1811 the creater of a volcano suddenly emerged from the sea near the Azores, and ejected vast quantities of lava, stones, and cinders; but the waves have since washed it all away.

Where the surrounding rock has been cracked and lava has filled the seam, this is called a *dike*, and the material filling it, *trap*. In many cases of old rocks the softer parts have since been worn away, and the dike remains as a projecting ridge or mountain. The "palisades" above New York, Mounts Tom and Holyoke, in Massachusetts, East and West Mountains at New Haven, Connecticut, and many smaller similar prominences on the eastern fringe of the Alleghany Mountains, are trap-dikes, so also are the celebrated Fingal's Cave, and the Giant's Causeway, in Ireland.

IV. GEOLOGICAL WORK OF PLANTS AND ANIMALS.

A slow-acting but continuous force will accomplish wonders, if time enough be allowed. This is seen in the geological proverb that a continual dropping will wear a stone. Scarcely anywhere, however, is it more manifest than in the geological effects of many lowly organized beings.

Limestone has in most cases been formed by some living being. The shells of oysters, and of all similar animals, are composed of carbonate of lime. In some cases lime rock is largely made up of such shells cemented together; while in other cases the shells have been broken by the action of waves, and the material is compacted together like a sandstone. A large part of Florida is composed of shell limestone. All this lime was slowly gathered by shell-fish from the water, and transformed by them into its present durable condition.

Coral animals do not produce a separate shell for each individual, but grow somewhat like trees. Unlike trees, however, they die at the bottom, and what was the stony framework of one generation becomes the foundation on which the next generation builds. The framework of the coral is likewise limestone, and as it is added to from year to year, it takes a variety of fantastic shapes, resembling many forms of plants. In the warmer regions of the Pacific and Indian Oceans the coral produces solid limestone reefs of great extent. On the east coast of Australia there is such a reef one thousand miles long. Around nearly all the islands of the Pacific there are circular reefs of coral limestone. These have often been built up from a depth of several hundred feet.

The limestones of our own country were doubtless originally formed in some such way as that just described, but have been subjected to long-continued heat and pressure until their appearance has been greatly changed; still, in nearly all limestones the print of a shell or of the framework of a coral may occasionally be seen.

The bones of animals are largely composed of phosphate of lime. This, too, is a very durable substance, and might form rock if it could ever accumulate in sufficient quantities. Bones are often found embedded in slate or sandstone

rocks, but bones rarely form a rock by themselves. On the coast of South Carolina, from Charleston to Beaufort, there are extensivs beds of phosphate of lime similar in composition to bones, and this is extensively dug and exported, to take the place of bone dust as a fertilizer. But this deposit is only a foot or two in thickness, and has probably been leached out of some much more extensive deposit containing it in a different condition.

Plants, too, have produced permanent results in geology. Peat and coal are vegetable deposits. A peat swamp is an incipient coal vein. The coal period was remarkable for the extent of the swamps in which vegetation grew, and into which it fell and partially decayed. Such swamps existed over a large part of the States bordering the Mississippi Valley or wherever coal is now found. By some cause the level of the country was lowered and streams laden with gravel, sand, and clay poured in upon the depressed areas, and spread out the sediment which was to seal up the coal and preserve it for man's use in future ages. Every successive coal-vein represents such an ancient elevation and depression of the land. In some places, as many as seventy-six seams of coal lie one above the other, separated by layers of sandstone and slate, being altogether many thousand feet thick. The total area of the productive coal-fields of the United States is not far from 125,000 square miles, and the coal is sufficient to last several thousand years. The anthracite or hard coal is, however, limited to three or four hundred square miles, and will be exhausted in two or three hundred years.

Iron, also, is sometimes a vegetable secretion. Bog ore, or limonite, now collects in many marshy places, and is occasionally found in such quantities as to be profitably mined. Whether the richer ores in the older rocks had a similar origin is, however, largely a matter of conjecture.

V. GEOLOGICAL ACTION OF COLD.

Cold is the absence of heat; and so what is said under the title of this section might have found a place when treating of the geological action of heat; but the subject is so interesting it is worthy of separate treatment.

The mechanical effects of cold are due to its expansive power. The solid substances into which heat enters usually increase in size, and the particles of the fluids or gases are driven apart as they become heated: but water, iron, bismuth, and some other substances, expand when their temperature is reduced to the point at which they become solid. The expansion of water by freezing is a very wide spread and effective force in nature. The force exerted is illustrated by the following experiment taken from "Griffin's Elementary Natural Philosophy," and referred to in my book of a year ago: "Mayor Williams of

Canada filled a thirteen-inch bomb-shell with water, drove an iron plug weighing three pounds into the hole, and exposed it to intense cold. After some time the plug was driven out with sufficient force to carry it four hundred and fifteen feet. At the same time a cylinder of ice eight inches long was forced out of the hole. In a second experiment the shell burst."

In regions where water freezes, its effects are every where manifest. Every winter loosens the soil to the depth affected by the frost. The water in the soil expands in freezing, and "heaves" the surface. Buildings whose foundations are not below the frost are thus liable to have their walls cracked, and to be made insecure. Plants with short roots are sometimes lifted out of the ground, and fence posts from their sockets. The condition of poorly made roads in the spring shows that the "breaking-up of winter" is more than a figure of speech.

Through this expansive property of freezing water, fragments of rock are also broken off from the precipices of which they form a part, and are hurled to the bottom. In a more gentle way, also, the frost helps to exalt the valleys and to lay the hills low; it acts upon the moist surface of rocks, and loosens from it small particles which water can transport and remove to lower levels. Ice also aids in the transportation of stones that are too large to be carried along by running water alone; being lighter than water, a mass of ice often conveys large fragments of rock lying upon its surface, or frozen into it, a long distance, and deposits them at its melting place.

Ice or snow has the peculiar quality, so to speak, of "storing up the cold" in the region where it forms or upon which it falls. Ice melts with difficulty, as any one can perceive by noticing how long it lingers in the spring after the warm weather has set in, or by observing how much heat is required to melt snow for a few gallons of water.

To melt one cubic foot of ice requires as much heat as would raise the temperature of a foot of water 176 degrees Fahrenheit. To melt a "layer of ice only one inch and a half thick would require as much heat as would raise a stratum of air eight hundred feet thick from the freezing point to the tropical heat of 88 degrees Fahrenheit." (Wallace). It is the slowness with which ice melts that enables it to accumulate as it does during winter, and upon high mountains and in arctic regions. Captain Scoresby relates that when near the North Pole the sun would sometimes be so hot as to melt the pitch on the south side of his vessel, while ice was freezing on the north side, in the shade, owing to the cooling effect of the masses of ice with which he was surrounded.

Because water runs down hill, it cannot accumulate upon the highlands; but ice can do so. to a certain extent. There is, however, a limit to the extent to

which ice can accumulate. As shown in the experiment just related, in which a column of ice was made to protrude from the hole in the bomb-shell, ice is not a perfect solid, but yields to pressure, and can be made to bend, or adjust itself to a mould. Hence, when ice accumulates upon a mountain, beyond a given depth, the pressure becomes so great that the ice, too, like water, runs down hill forming a glacier. Of these most interesting objects we shall treat in the next section.

VI. GLACIERS.

The glaciers of Switzerland have been so carefully studied by Agassiz and others that from them we have learned the habits of ice-streams; for, in many respects, glaciers are like frozen rivers. Their origin and progress are about as follows:

More snow falls upon the mountain heights in winter than can melt in the summer. As this accumulates from year to year the lower portions become compact from pressure, and resemble ordinary ice. After a certain amount has collected, it begins to move down the valleys, somewhat as cold molasses or tar would run. These ice-streams now extend in Switzerland far below the line of perpetual snow, and in summer are surrounded by green fields and thriving villages. In former times they extended much further than now; covering, indeed, all Swizerland, and filling the wide valley between the Alps and the Jura mountains.

The geological action of such moving bodies of ice is various. Their enormous weight gives them great eroding power. The stones, gravel, and sand beneath them are shoved along over the underlying rock, producing effects like those of a huge rasp or of extremely coarse sand-paper. Whenever a glacier passes over a region it leaves furrows in the rock beneath and scratches its surface. As a result of this process much of the rock is ground to a fine powder, which charges the streams, caused by the melting ice, with a vast amount of sediment, which is destined to be dropped over the bottom of the first lake it reaches. The glacier also receives upon its back the fragments of rock and soil which, in the ordinary course of events, slide down from the precipitous sides of the valley through which it moves. Fragments are likewise sent by the moving ice from the sides and bottoms of the channel. This earthy material is carried in the ice until it reaches the place of melting, where it is dropped, summer by summer; the warm air melts off the lower end of the glacier, and in winter, the ice regaining the ground lost, brings a fresh burden of earthy material to be deposited. Thus there is formed in front of the glacier a line of hills, called a "terminal moraine."

Greenland is now nearly all covered by a vast sheet of glacial ice moving towards Baffin's Bay. It is the fragments of this glacier, broken off as they enter the sea which constitute the icebergs so frequently encountered in the North Atlantic Ocean. These icebergs are often of great size and many hundred feet deep. The Antarctic Continent is likewise covered with a glacial ice-sheet sending huge icebergs into the Southern seas.

One of the most recent and interesting geological events was the extension of this northern ice-sheet, now covering Greenland, until its front reached the southern shore of New England, and extended westward across the Allegheny Mountains and the Mississippi Valley. Over all the region north of the latitude of New York City the marks of the glacial period are as clear as the letters upon this page, and can as easily be read by one who studies their language. Scratches on the rocks, such as were described a moment ago, are everywhere visible upon freshly uncovered surfaces over the region mentioned. Fragments of rocks of all sizes, that have been carried upon the ice hundreds of miles, dot the surface, and in places are accumulated in vast piles as in a terminal moraine. There are hills in Eastern Ohio covered with granite boulders transported by the ice from the northern part of Canada, three or four hundred miles away.

What is most surprising is, that these transported stones are not found south of a well-defined line. This line extends through Long Island to Brooklyn, N. Y., and thence across New Jersey to the Delaware River, a little above the mouth of the Lehigh. Thence, Professor H. C. Lewis and myself have traced it to the Ohio line, about fifteen miles north of the Ohio River. It makes, however, a singular northerly bend—running into the State of New York in Cattaraugus county. Westward from Pennsylvania I have followed the line through Southern Ohio and Indiana to Illinois; thence it bends northwestward through Missouri, Kansas, and Nebraska, into Dakota. All north of this line was an unbroken ice-field, like Greenland of to-day. Along a large portion of the boundary of this glaciated area, especially east of Ohio, the heat and the cold were in equilibrium a sufficient time for large deposits of earthy material to accumulate, forming a true moraine, like those deposited in front of Alpine glaciers.

VII. THE ICE DAM AT CINCINNATI.

One of the most interesting results of my investigations last summer was the discovery of evidence showing that, during the glacial period the ice extended across the Ohio River at Cincinnati, and left glacial deposits on the hills in Kentucky. If the readers of this who live in Cleveland will go out on Euclid Avenue a little ways beyond the Cleveland and Pittsburgh Station, they

will notice on the south side a small house whose front yard is ornamented by some very remarkable fragments of rock. The rock is a very compact and hard conglomerate, containing a variety of pebbles, some of which consist of red jasper, giving the whole a beautiful, mottled appearance. The residence to which you are referred is that of Col. Charles Whittlesey, a gentleman who has done great service to science, and whose reputation was world-wide nearly half a century ago. Col. Whittlesey obtained the fragments of which we have spoken upon the shores of Lake Superior, and had them shipped from there to Cleveland on account of their beauty. Being familiar with these ornaments in the Colonel's yard, the reader can imagine my delight about six months ago when tramping over the hills of Kentucky, fifteen miles southwest of Cincinnati, I stumbled upon a cluster of boulders which must have, originally, been near neighbors of those brought by Col. Whittlesey from the shores of Lake Superior. His were brought to Cleveland in the hold of a ship; mine were carried to Kentucky from the same shore upon the back of a glacier. Since then I have found similar fragments from the same region scattered over a wide area.

The fragment just described, and others of a similar character, tell a marvellous tale. They tell, as we have already intimated, that during the glacial period the ice crept over into Kentucky, and for a distance of fifty miles, filled up the channel of the Ohio River, and formed an obstruction or dam not far from six hundred feet in height. Glacial dams have not been unknown in other parts of the world. If I am not mistaken some small lakes, high up in the Alps, still owe their existence to the obstruction formed by the ice of a glacier crossing their natural outlet. Mr. Darwin and Sir Charles Lyell convinced the world that what are called the "parallel roads of Glen Roy" in Scotland were the results of a glacial dam. These so-called "parallel roads of Glen Roy" are really terraces high up in a mountain valley, and formed upon the shore of a temporary lake whose waters were kept in place by a glacier from another mountain which crossed the front of the valley.

It may be that I am prejudiced in favor of my own discovery, but it really seems to me that this ice-dam at Cincinnati is the most interesting and wonderful, glacial phenomenon that has ever come to light; for it carries with it a long, narrow, winding lake, upwards of six hundred feet in depth, occupying the present valley of the Ohio, extending from Cincinnati far up into the valleys of the Allegheny and Monongahela Rivers, and submerging Pittsburgh to a depth of three hundred or four hundred feet. To some this seemed incredible. But no sooner had I announced the fact than Professor White, of the Pennsylvania Geological Survey, and who lives in the Monongahela Valley, published a great mass of facts, showing that there were extensive terraces all along the

Monongahela River at a height closely corresponding to that of my ice-barrier at Cincinnati. These terraces are just what ought to occur if such a lake ever existed, and are just what are always found to occur when the level of a lake is lowered by drainage. Many similar facts confirmatory of my view have been brought to notice during the past few months; and Professor Lesley, Director of the Pennsylvania Geological Survey, has publicly announced his belief in the theory.

VIII. CAUSE OF THE GLACIAL PERIOD.

The cause of the glacial period is not very definitely known. We know only that increased cold and increased moisture in the northern hemisphere must have combined to cause the general glaciation described. Cold alone is not sufficient to produce a glacier; but an increased fall of snow might produce one; for that would both make more ice to be melted, and would tend to lower the temperature of the region covered by it.

Snow stores up the cold, and keeps it in a definite place. If the air becomes chilled circulation at once sets in, and the cold air is transferred to warmer regions; but if there is moisture in the air, so that snow forms, the cold becomes locked up, as it were, and falls to the earth.

Thus, it will appear, that a change in the direction of the moist winds blowing from the equator to the poles, might produce a glacial epoch. If snow falls upon the ocean, it cools the water, but through the currents, everywhere visible in the sea, the temperature of the water in the different parts soon becomes equalized. If, however, the snow falls upon the land, it must be melted by the direct action of the sun and wind upon the spot where it is. If the heat furnished by these agencies is not sufficient to melt the snows year by year, there will soon be such an accumulation of snow that it will begin to move off in the direction of least resistance, which, in mountains, is down hill, and in the high latitudes is toward the equator.

The earth is now 3,000,000 miles nearer the sun at some times of the year than at others, and many persons suppose that this tends to make the southern hemisphere colder than the northern, and so would produce a glacial period in that portion of the earth, if there were not so much water around the South Pole.

But about 10,500 years ago it was the northern hemisphere, that was favorably situated to have the annual difference of distances from the sun produce this cooling effect upon it; and in about 10,500 years there will be a return of these astronomical conditions. So that, according to this theory, ought to occur once in about 21,000 years. It is probable, however, that these astronomical con-

ditions are not sufficient of themselves to produce a glaciation of either hemisphere, but that there must concur with them certain changes in the elevation and distribution of the lands in that hemisphere, and so in the direction of the oceanic currents and of the prevailing winds.

The rate at which glaciers move, depends upon the depth of the ice, the steepness of the incline, and the warmth of the weather. In the Alps, where the depth of the ice is but two or three hundred feet, the mean daily motion is one to three feet; while in Greenland, where the thickness is two or three thousand feet, the daily motion, in spite of the much lower temperature, is, in some cases, sixty feet." (Le Conte). A motion even faster than this is possible for the southern portion of the continental ice-sheet during the great glacial period.

An interesting indication, however, of the slowness of the southern motion of the ice of the glacial period, is afforded by the evidence that the forests of that time moved on towards the south ahead of the ice. A single tree cannot emigrate, but a forest can. If it becomes too cold for a particular kind of tree upon the northern boundary of its natural province, all that the forest has to do is to draw in the line of its extension northward, and extend its boundary further south, and this is just what the forests did upon the approach of the ice during the glacial period. Before the glacial period, the ancestors of the trees and plants now found growing in Virginia and California and Japan, lived in peace and harmony together in Greenland, and the other lands near the North Pole. This we know from the fossil leaves and other parts of trees found in the rocks of that region. It must, at that time, have been as warm in the vicinity of the North Pole as it is now in Virginia and North Carolina.

The botanist can give the names of a large number of trees and plants which fled from the northern regions before the advancing ice of the glacial period, till they occupied corresponding latitude upon opposite sides of the great oceans; and since the close of the glacial period it has not been sufficiently warm for them to retrace their steps and re-occupy their old haunts. The gigantic trees of California, some of which are twenty-five feet in diameter, are among the number whose ancestors thus emigrated. These trees are cousins to the bald cypress of the Southern States and Mexico, and to a tree resembling them in China. These scattered members of the family remain in their isolation to testify to the work of the glacial age. Another similar evidence of the southward movement of plants with the advancing ice-sheet, is derived from certain Alpine plants found upon the White Mountains in New Hampshire. It certainly is strange that flowers whose natural home is now in the Arctic

regions should be found upon isolated mountain peaks, thousands of miles south of their home. But such is the case. They probably accompanied the ice in its most southern extension, and when it withdrew, took to the high mountains, on their way back, and ascended them until an elevation with arctic conditions was reached.

Altogether, the study of the marks of the glacial period, with its attendant circumstances, is one of the most impressive and interesting occupations within the reach of the human mind. The majority of the forces in operation is second only to those visible in the field of astronomy.

IX. THE GEOLOGICAL RECORD.

From what has been said about the action of geological forces it will readily be seen that the rocks contain a history of the world which it is worth while trying to read. What we know of the present effects of rivers and waves, and of glaciers and earthquakes and volcanoes, enable us to detect the many marks they have left behind them in the rocks. Every one has noticed the ripple marks upon the sandy shore of the ocean or of lakes. The same may often be seen upon slabs of sandstone, telling us that the sand of which the stone is composed formed, at one time, a beach, and that limpid waves chased each other to and fro over its surface. The handwriting of the water cannot be counterfeited. Rocks, formed from material that has been deposited and rearranged by water, are called "sedimentary." In these the layers or strata originally lay horizontally, one upon another, like the leaves of a book when on its side. A great many of these strata together constitute a "geological formation." The geological formation may be compared to a number of books piled one upon another.

The rocky strata are not, however, now always in a horizontal position. Forces from beneath have, in many places, pushed the strata upward, and tilted them partly upon an edge; so that the rocks now lie like a pile of books that have been tumbled over, and rest upon one another in a great deal of confusion. Nevertheless, geologists are able to tell pretty nearly which one originally lay at the bottom, and what was the successive order. This they can do partly by noticing the direction in which the strata dip. For example, should we find the strata slanting downwards to the east, we should, in going westward, pass over the upturned edges of strata that were originally under those to the east. On going still further west we should very likely come to a place where the strata slanted in an opposite direction, as if a force from beneath had broken through the sedimentary strata, and left them slanting off from an axis, like the rafters from the ridge-pole of a house.

The Appalachian range, of which Blue Ridge and the Allegheny Mountains are familiar portions, is composed of such elevated ridges, running from northeast to southwest, and with the strata slanting in opposite directions upon the two sides of the line. Before the coal was formed, as we have shown, these mountains were covered by the sea; and when the coal was accumulating, the whole region was still as low as the sea-level. Since that period the whole has been thrown up to its present height by a pressure from the east. A little study of the maps will disclose the interesting fact that the mountains of the world are nearly all in "chains." The Rocky Mountains and the Andes form a continuous chain from the Arctic Ocean to the Antarctic. Upon the Eastern Continent the mountain-chains are equally extensive, but as a rule, run east and west. Thus the Alps, the Carpathians, and the Balkans, in Europe, are continued through Asia Minor and Persia to the Hindo Koosh and the Himalaya Mountains, stretching to the Chinese Sea. The continents are built about the mountains, and all these great chains agree in bearing evidence of having once been under the sea, and of having been elevated by a pressure applied at right angles to the direction of the chain.

Mountains are not only figuratively, but literally, *wrinkles* upon the surface of the earth, such as form upon an apple when it dries, or upon a ball when it is squeezed. We have already alluded to the evidence from volcanoes that the interior of the earth is very hot. But of course it is gradually growing cooler; since, for one thing, a great deal of heat still escapes through volcanoes and hot springs. Now the earth, like nearly everything else, grows smaller as it cools, and the cooler and harder portion upon the outside is wrinkled in adjusting itself to the contracting interior. The mountains may also literally be termed wrinkles upon the surface of the earth, because they are so small when compared with the size of the world. The Alleghanies rise about six thousand feet above the sea; the Rocky Mountains about fourteen thousand feet; the Andes more than twenty thousand. But the world is eight thousand miles in diameter; and if it were represented by a globe thirty-five feet in diameter—equal to the height of a pretty large house—the highest of these mountains would be represented by a protuberance of only one-third of an inch.

X. FOSSILS.

We sometimes desire to compare the age of rocks which exist in widely separated regions, and where we cannot tell by direct observation which strata are nearest the top of the series, and which at the bottom; for sometimes the strata have been thrown clear over so that they lie bottom side up, or, more frequently, are left standing in the opposite direction from their original position.

If a high pile of books should fall over, they would lie in no greater confusion than the rocks do in many places; and, where oceans come between two localities, direct comparison is out of the questions. Fortunately for the study of geological history, the remains of animals and plants embedded in the rocks, enable us to tell of their relative age. As we have already stated, some rocks are made up of shells; and almost everywhere there are found the scattered bones, or indeed, entire skeletons, of the animals which were living on the land or in the sea when the sediment, out of which the rocks were formed, was being deposited. Portions of wood, and the leaves and fruit of many trees, are thus preserved. These are called "fossils."

When the rocky strata lie *in place*, that is, in their orignal position one top of another, the fossils are found to follow a regular order from the bottom upwards. In the lower rocks the only fossil remains of animal life to be found belonged to mollusks, or shell-fish, like clams and oysters. Higher up in the series the bones and scales of ordinary fish are found. Higher still, fossil remains of reptiles like lizards and alligators and birds appear; and finally, at the top, the bones of animals like the hog, camel, cow, horse, opossum, and monkey.

Fossil plants appear in the rocks in corresponding order. At the bottom occur the stems of flowerless plants like mushrooms, seaweeds, ferns, rushes, ground pines, and such other pines as now grow in South America and Australia. It is only in the later rocks, or those near the top of the series, that the most highly organized plants and trees are found fossil—such as the rose, maple, oak, apple, and most of the ordinary shrubs and trees.

So well has this principle, that the fossil plants and animals in the lower strata of rocks belong to the more lowly organized species and kinds, and the fossils in the upper or later rocks to the more highly organized forms of life, been established that the age of rocks can be inferred with tolerable accuracy from the fossils alone; so that if a slab of stone were to be sent to a geologist, he could tell by studying these fossils what place the rock occupied in the geological series. The problem is like that which would be presented if an edition of an unpaged, illustrated book had been torn in pieces, and the leaves widely scattered. Though the book might no longer exist in its bound form, with all the leaves together, the investigator could soon learn, from the relation of part with part, what place in the volume was originally occupied by single leaves which should be brought to him.

From study of fossils geologists have learned that the successive forms of life, in different parts of the world, have been pretty nearly alike. We will speak more particularly of this in the next section.

XI. PALEONTOLOGY.—PRIMARY AND SECONDARY PERIODS.

This is a very long, but not a very hard word. It means the science of ancient life, and treats of the fossils spoken of in the previous section. In this, we will speak more particularly of the forms of life which existed in the world during the successive geologic ages.

Among the earliest forms of life, that is, those found lowest down in the rocks, are sponges and various other minute animals called rhizopods, whose shells are many times smaller than the head of a pin. Next in order, above these, come mollusks. The snail and the oyster are familiar living specimens of these species; but in the early geologic ages there was an endless variety of such shell-bearing animals, especially in the sea. One of these, called the trilobite, resembled somewhat a horse shoe crab, and frequently grew to be nearly two feet long. The trilobite, though one of the earliest forms of life preserved in a fossil state, is remarkable for the perfection of his eyes; and of the number which appeared fifteen hundred species have been described. Yet he became extinct forever before the coal period, which must have been many million years ago. Before trilobites became extinct a great variety of monstrous and strange fish appeared. Mr. Terrel, of Oberlin, O., has recently discovered in the soft rocks on the shore of Lake Erie, the remains of an enormous fish (named *dinicthys*—terrible fish), which must have been, when alive, fifteen or eighteen feet long and three feet thick, with jaws two feet in length, slipping past each other in the back parts like shears. In an allied species found near by, the teeth were two inches or more long, and resembled those of an alligator. The fore part of the body of these fish was protected by large, bony plates, like those of the turtle.

Many other fish of large size, existed at this time. The fish nearest like them now are gar-fish, sturgeons, and sharks. But neither now, nor at any time since coal began to be formed, has there been such abundance and variety of gigantic fishes as during what is called the Devonian period, the rocks of which are just under those of the coal formation.

The rocks of the coal period, which come next in ascending order, contain a great variety of shells and fossil fish; but are specially remarkable for the story they tell of the plant life then existing. There were then several kinds of cone-bearing trees, but they evidently differed much from that class of trees now living. The most abundant plants of the coal period were ferns. The impressions of fern-leaves are frequently to be seen on pieces of soft coal as it comes to us from the market, and the microscope often discloses the seed vessels of ferns in coal in such quantities that the coal seems to have been almost wholly made up of them. The leaves of ferns from the coal formations are often eight feet long!

One of the most abundant trees of this period (*lepidodendron*—scaly tree) resembled club-moss, only it was frequently from two to four feet through at the base, and from forty to sixty feet high. Another extensive variety resembled externally the horse-tail, or scouring rush. It was, however, sometimes two feet or more in diameter, and thirty feet high.

The fossil remains of many reptiles are also found in the rocks of the coal period. But what is most interesting of all is, that the tracks of the reptiles of this period are preserved upon the flat surfaces of the rocks as they are split open. At the time the tracks were made, of course the material of the rock had not hardened, but was a mud-flat. Over this the animal walked, and left his tracks, when the rising waves of the tide or of a flooded river washed over the surface, and filled the impression with sediment. Now, as the rock is split open, the filling comes out, and discloses the tracks of a by-gone age. Sometimes the marks of rain-drops that fell upon the mud of these half-dried flats are thus preserved. It is thus that impressions in our memories are often buried to be disclosed at unexpected and unwelcome times. The scars of sin will remain in the soul longer than the reptilian tracks in the sandstones of the coal period.

Next above the coal formation come the strata of rocks in which the most remarkable fossils are those of reptiles. Reptiles, like fishes, are cold-blooded animals, but are air-breathing, like birds and other land animals. They live half in water and half on land; and they include such living species as crocodiles, lizards, tortoises, frogs, toads, and snakes. They can be distinguished from fish, and from ordinary land animals, both by their teeth and by their backbones, so that a geologist can tell from a single fossil bone whether it belonged to a fish, or a reptile, or a bird, or a quadruped.

The geologic age of which we are now speaking is called the mesozoic (meaning the middle period of living things). The reptiles of the mesozoic era were, many of them, strange in form and of enormous size.

The *icthyosaurus* (fish-like crocodiles) of this period was a thick-set animal, in some cases forty feet long, with a huge head, five feet long containing two hundred large teeth, and eyes fifteen inches in diameter. He lived in the water and had four webbed feet, and a long fin-tipped tail with which to swim. He was adapted to make havoc among the fish, and we know that he fulfilled his mission, for occasionally the contents of his stomach are partially preserved in the rocks, and are composed largely of fish scales.

The *plesiosaurus* (almost like a crocodile) had a stout body, like the preceding animal, and four paddles, from six to seven feet long, for locomotion; but, instead of having a long tail, had a neck from ten to fifteen feet long.

The *iguanadon* was another remarkable reptile of the mesozoic age. He was sometimes sixty feet long, and several times larger than an elephant. A thigh bone has been found which was five feet long and from twenty-five to forty inches around.

The *cetiosaur* (whale-like lizard) was even larger, being probably seventy feet long, with a thigh bone five and a half feet long and from twenty-seven to forty-six inches around. This was probably the largest land animal that ever existed.

The most remarkable animals of this period were, however, those which combined the characteristics of reptiles and birds. Many varieties of these have been found in Europe and in the Western Territories of the United States. The *pterodactyl* (wing-finger) was one that had a great web, somewhat like a bat's, attached to its little fingers, which were greatly elongated. When spread out these wings would sometimes stretch as much as twenty feet. This winged reptile did not have feathers, but had a bird's bill with the addition of sharp teeth.

The *archaeopteryx* (ancient bird) was like the preceding, only it had veritable feathers, both in its wing and in its tail, which was long like that of an alligator, with feathers growing out on each side at every joint. These flying reptiles, however, were not large; but the tail of the archaeopteryx had twenty-one joints, and was eight or nine inches long, exclusive of the feathers. Professor Marsh has discovered several fossils similar to these in the Western Territories, where, also, he has found the before unheard of thing of fossil birds that had teeth.

Fossil butterflies and beetles are also found in the mesozoic rocks,—the delicate membranes of their wings having made their impression upon the soft clay in which they became imbedded. The only quadrupeds living at that time were such as resembled opossums and kangaroos.

XII. THE CENOZOIC OR TERTIARY PERIOD.

Cenozoic age means "recent age;" but the time covered by it is recent only in comparison with the ages that have gone before. It is separated from the preceding era by vast changes. Previous to this era the Gulf of Mexico extended northward into British America. The Rocky Mountains were but slightly elevated above the sea, and the waves of the Atlantic Ocean beat against the base of the Blue Ridge and Allegheny Mountains, all along their eastern and southern boundaries. Between the mesozoic age and the cenozoic age the whole

western half of America was bodily upheaved; and a similar upheaval occurred in Europe. The chalk formations of England and the Continent were deposited in a deep ocean, stretching through the central part of Europe as far as the Black Sea.

The general character of the plants and animals of this period (which is usually called the "tertiary"), is like those of the present time. In speaking of the glacial period, we have already said that previous to that time, that is, during the tertiary age, trees almost identical with the red woods of California, and the bald cypress and magnolia of the Southern States, grew in Greenland, Iceland, and Spitzbergen. In Europe, in some of the rocks of this age, immense fossil insects are also found. As many as fifteen hundred species of such fossils have been described, including butterflies, bees, and ants. Many of these are preserved in amber, they having become entangled in this as insects now become entangled in turpentine or gum. So perfectly are they preserved that their broken legs are still seen where they were left in the struggle to escape.

During the tertiary age monstrous sharks swam in the seas covering the eastern coast of the Southern States. In the phosphate bed of South Carolina, sharks' teeth are found that are four inches long and three inches across the base. If the bodies of these sharks were proportionately large, they must have been seventy feet long. The quadrupeds found in the lower, or older, strata of the tertiary period are mostly such as fed on vegetable food. This is known by their sharp teeth. One reason why a dog does not eat oats is that his teeth are not adapted like those of the horse to grind them. Most of the quadrupeds of the early tertiary period had thick skins like the hog, horse, and rhinoceros; and many of them short trunks like the elephant and tapir. The most of these animals also had hoofs instead of claws, and the distinction recognized in the Mosaic law between those that parted the hoof and those that did not, was very early established.

The order of time in which the animals, resembling the horse, were introduced into the world, is very interesting and instructive. The facts were first collected and explained by Professor Marsh, of Yale College. Low down in the tertiary strata of Nebraska and Dakota he found the fossil remains of animals resembling a horse, only they had, beside the main hoof, three hooflets on each foot. Then he found others with two hooflets; others still with smaller hooflets; and others still in which the hooflets had shrunk away to be mere splint bones, such as are now found upon horses' legs. The hoof of the horse corresponds to the nail on one's middle finger.

XIII. LOCAL GEOLOGY.

In the little book prepared a year ago (see pp. 249 and 257), I briefly descrbed the lake ridges running through Cleveland, and gave a short account of the formation of Lake Erie. It would be well for the reader to re-read those passages in this connection; and I will now add a few further facts of local interest.

The rocks of Northeastern Ohio, bordering the lake, belong to what are called the "Devonian formation," to which reference has just been made (see p. 57). The dip of the rocks in this region is towards the southeast. Near the lake the rocks exposed are "shale," being of a dark color, very soft, and containing a great deal of finely comminuted vegetable matter. Indeed, there is so much of this vegetable matter in the Erie shale that coal oil can be distilled from it at a moderate cost; and it is not improbable that when, a thousand years hence, the oil wells shall have failed, and the coal fields have been exhausted, that all Northern Ohio will be mined for this shale, and Cleveland still be the center of trade in the oil manufactured from it by artificial means, as it is now of the oil distilled from the shale by natural means.

Origin of Coal Oil.—We have said that coal oil can be distilled by artificia processes from Erie shale, and have suggested that petroleum is distilled from it by nature. The evidence of this last surmise is not far to find. Gas-springs abound in all this region adjoining the lake. In Russia and Sheffield townships, in Lorain county, there are numerous well-known places where gas comes out from natural fissures in the rocks in such quantities that it can be lighted. In sinking an artesian well in Oberlin this fall gas enough was obtained, after going down a few hundred feet, to pay for the expense of the experiment. Major Casement's house in Painesville is both lighted and warmed by gas, obtained from an artesian well, and I do not know how many other residences within a few miles of the lake shore are similarly supplied. The city of Fredonia in New York, has long been lighted with gas, obtained in a similar manner. Professor Newberry is probably correct in supposing that this supply of gas originates from the vegetable matter in the Erie shale; just as at at the gas works, gas is made from coal; only that in the natural process the work goes on at once more slowly, and upon a larger scale.

Nature's Receptacle for the Oil.—Professor Newberry's theory is supported by the positions in which oil is found. As you go back from Cleveland a few miles, ledges of sandstone rock are encountered. These are specially prominent near Newburg, Bedford, and Independence. If you bore through the

sandstone you everywhere find the Erie shale underneath it. Indeed, on going up the Cuyahoga Valley towards Akron, you can everywhere see the sandstone overlying the shale. On going still farther from the lake, you find overlying this sandstone a much coarser variety, containing numerous hard quartz pebbles, an inch or more in diameter. Everyone who has visited the Glens at Cuyahoga Falls, must have noticed this conglomerate there. It covers the northeastern part of Medina county, and a large part of Geauga county. Little Mountain is an outlier of it.

On going still farther back from the lake, you encounter the "coal measures," extending as far north as Mantua in Portage county, and Talmadge in Summit county. The coal measures contain various kinds of rock, of which strata of limestone and slatestone are pretty continuous.

The meaning of this state of things just described is, that in geologic phrase the strata of rock in Northeastern Ohio "dip" toward the southeast, and if in any place where the coal appears near the surface an artesian well should be sunk, you will find underneath the coal measures conglomerate like that at Little Mountain and Cuyahoga Falls, and underneath the conglomerate finer sandstone, like that at Berea, and underneath the sandstone Erie shale.

Now the productive oil wells are usually found in this conglomerate, underneath the coal measures and above the shale, and immense quantities of gas almost always escape when these oil sands are penetrated. Professor Newberry's theory is, that the gas which is constantly forming in the shales below is slowly condensed wherever an impenetrable rock overlies it, and that in such situations the porous sandstones become saturated with oil. It certainly is remarkable that the oil should be so uniformly connected with this sand formation. In the oil region this sand formation is reached by boring from one to two thousand feet. The flow of oil is not increased by going below this sandstone. The oil men, however, have a very interesting way of increasing the flow of a well after it has reached the oil-sand. They *dynamite* the well;—a process which consists of lowering a great quantity of dynamite or nitro-glycerine to the depth required to reach the oil-sands, and there exploding it. This shatters the rocks at that great depth, and permits what oil there is absorbed in the rock to find its way rapidly to the well. The accuracy with which geologists can calculate the depth to which one must go to find a certain kind of rock is one of the greatest wonders of geology.

WONDERS OF BOTANY.

BY PROF. G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

EVERYTHING about trees and plants is really wonderful. If we fail to see the marvel it is because we have not observed closely.

I. THE SEED.

There is no end to the interest with which we may study the seeds of plants. The *power* of the seed is marvelous. A grain of mustard seed is no larger than a grain of sand, and might easily be mistaken for one; yet it has concealed within it a power of life sufficient to clothe a continent with verdure. A kernel of wheat when chemically analyzed seems identical with a morsel of dough made from Graham flour; but the *form* was as important as the substance. Unlike the truth, a grain of wheat when crushed to the earth does not rise again. It is easy to destroy the life of a seed, but impossible to restore it.

The seed is composed of two parts, one of which consists of the germ, or "embryo," from which growth begins; the other part is called the albumen and contains the nutriment upon which the germ feeds until its power of drawing sustenance from the earth and air is fully developed. The great bulk of wheat and corn upon which man depends for food was originally prepared to supply temporary nutriment to the germ. For us to appropriate this to our own use might look like robbery upon our part, and as if we were defeating the ends of nature, were it not for the fact that seeds are produced in such enormous numbers. The waste of seeds in nature is impressive and startling. When a forest of trees comes into possession of a territory, it comes to stay. The trees now occupying the ground will occupy it for a hundred years to come; and yet they continue to produce seeds, and to scatter them thickly over the pre-occupied ground. The larger portion of these are perhaps utilized by various animals; but thousands and tens of thousands sprout and grow for a season, only to die, because there is no room for their development. The wonder in all this is, perhaps, not so great in respect to the seed itself as in the adaptation of the seed to

the wants of the higher forms of life. Considering the history of the majority of seeds, it cannot be said that their chief purpose is to perpetuate their species, and to produce other plants and seeds. With great plausibility we may urge that God's chief design in having plants produce seeds is to provide for the animal creation. What would the squirrels do without nuts and acorns, and various other dry seeds, which they may store away for winter's use? What would the little birds do in winter without the dry stalks of seed which rise above the bleak fields of snow? What could man himself do without wheat and rice, and corn and beans, and oats and barley, and other civilized grains?

II. APPENDAGES TO THE SEED.

The various appendages to seeds, equally with the seed itself, are interesting and valuable. One class of appendages aid the seed in traveling, and it is important that seeds should be able to travel. Since the plant itself is usually fixed to the ground, if it is to occupy adjoining spaces, the seed must be provided with means of locomotion.

Many seeds, like those of the maple and the ash, are provided with wing-like projections, which, as the seeds fall, strike against the air and make them sail away some distance from the foot of the tree. Other seeds, like those of the dandelion, the thistle, and the fireweed, are attached to downy tufts which bear them up like balloons, and permit the winds to carry them long distances. Other seeds come into the world prepared to attach themselves to the fleece or fur of animals, and thus secure transportation wherever the animal or his clothing goes. All troublesome burrs are of this class, and they fix themselves to various kinds of birds and animals. By this means, also, human commerce becomes an agent for distributing seeds. The fur of northern animals and the fleece of sheep from America and Australia convey a variety of seeds to Europe. Near the woolen factories in Montpelier, France, where foreign wools are received and cleansed, the vegetation of Buenos Ayres, La Plata, and Mexico has been introduced in such abundance and variety, that all the great botanists of France have been accustomed to resort thither, as to a botanical garden, to carry on their studies of foreign plants. Indeed, weeds are among the first things to avail themselves of improved means of travel. Most of the troublesome weeds in America obtained free passage in the ships that brought the early emigrants to our shores. They were attached to the clothing, or were within the bedding, or mingled with the useful seeds brought over by the early settlers; or they were attached to the dogs and cats; or, perhaps, were undigested in the stomachs of the domesticated animals which accompanied the early settlers.

Many of the noxious weeds of this country were introduced for their beauty as flowers. Weeds are also the first to patronize new railroads, and are always found to distribute themselves rapidly over new regions when penetrated by these essential instruments of modern civilization. Civilization distributes evil as well as good, and is not in anything an unmixed blessing. The weeds of Europe are stronger then the weeds of New Zealand, and have, in that far-off land, usurped authority over the native weeds, and well nigh driven them out of existence.

The attractiveness of seeds to animals for food is likewise an important means of distribution. Birds sometimes eat the fruit enveloping the seed, while the seed itself passes through the stomach undigested, and is ready to germinate. The digestive organs of the horse and the cow likewise suffer many seeds to pass through them uninjured. The squirrel frequently lays up greater store of nuts than he needs, or perhaps forgets where he has stored them, and thus becomes an important distributor.

Many seeds are likewise so perfectly protected that they can remain even in salt water for a long period, and thus are carried by rivers and ocean currents to far distant places. Pieces of wood to which seeds are attached may be carried by the Gulf Stream from the West Indies to Northern Europe, and by currents in the Pacific Ocean from Oregon to the Micronesian Islands.

The length of time through which seeds preserve their vitality is various. It was once reported that wheat found in some of the tombs of Ancient Egypt had germinated upon being planted. But this story is now discredited, along with several others of a like character. There are, however, well authenticated cases of seeds growing a century or more after they were gathered. But in order to do this they must be carefully protected from the air and from moisture. The rapidity with which seeds germinate after they are planted also varies; as, indeed, is necessary. The seeds of the peach, the almond, and of nut trees very properly need to pass through the rigors of a winter; so that they may begin their growth in the early spring; while others, like the poppy, wheat, and corn will germinate a few days after planting.

III. THE FRUIT.

Fruit is another important appendage of the seed, and gives the principal value to many trees and plants. In some cases, as we have seen, the seed itself furnishes man with food; but in a still larger number of cases we eat not the seed, but its envelope. The most familiar cases are the apple, plum, peach, grape, cherry, cucumber, squash, strawberry, lemon, orange, etc. In all these

cases, if we eat the seed at all, it is because of the difficulty of separating it from its envelope. An interesting thing, in connection with fruit, is that the variety of trees or plants which produce the most valuable fruits cannot always be propagated from the seed, but have to be obtained by grafting, or budding. If you plant the seed of a nice variety of apple, or the stone of a delicious peach, the trees that spring from them will not produce the valuable varieties of fruit from which the seed came.

IV. VEGETABLE GROWTH.

Plant a seed, and it will grow. The mystery of growth is unfathomable. The germ of the seed contains the miniature plant already formed. The tree is but the *unfolding* of the embryo. From one side of the germ the root penetrates the earth, seeking moisture and darkness; from the other side, the stalk lifts its head above the earth and unfolds its leaflets in the sunlight. If obstacles intervene to prevent either the root or the stalk from attaining its end, it will, as if animated by an instinct, push its way through the obstructions or work around them. The expanding force of a germ is no insignificant item. A friend of ours enclosed a quart of moistened peas in an iron cylinder, and adjnsted them to scales so that he could estimate the force exerted by them in growth. As the germs expanded, they exerted a collective pressure sufficient to move a ton's weight; and how much more it would have moved, the scales failed to tell.

Plants draw their food from two sources, viz.: from the soil and from the air. The root is the organ for collecting material from the earth, and the manner of its growth is interesting. It does not grow by making additions to the very end, but the end of the root or filament is composed of a hard substance which is pushed along by the expansive forces immediately behind. The amount of material absorbed by the root from the soil and entering into the constitution of the plant, is comparatively small; but, small as it is, it is absolutely essential to the full development of the plant, and especially of the seed. The mineral elements of a plant are all absorbed from the earth by the roots, and can all be separated and obtained in concentrated form by burning the vegetable tissue in the fire, when the entire product furnished by the roots will appear in the ashes. If now, the roots of a grain of wheat or a kernel of corn be allowed to penetrate a jar of water, holding in solution just the elements contained in the ashes of a stalk and its grain that have been burned, the plant, under proper precautions, will flourish and come to maturity as if growing in the soil. The ashes of the plant consist of small quantities of lime, potash, soda, and various other elements, among which one of the most important is

phosphorus. This is absorbed by the roots in very minute quantities, and its presence is absolutely essential to the development of the seed. The greatest difficulty in fertilizing land is to get within reach of the roots the proper supply of phosphorus. It is for this purpose that guano it so extensively imported. The bones of animals are rich in phosphorus, and so the skeletons of buffaloes are gathered from the plains of the West, and carried to England to supply the wheat fields of that country with the requisite amount of phosphorus. The whole earth is ransacked by commercial enterprise to get hold of the limited stores of phosphorus that, for untold ages, have been sealed up in geologic strata. The bays and inlets of South Carolina are dredged, and the islands along the coast are dug over to obtain this essential element which, as phosphate of lime is transported to Europe and to the cotton States, to find its way into the grain upon which men feed, and finally into the graveyards where men's bones repose, and into the trees whose roots are so fortunate as to penetrate these receptacles of the dead.

From ninety to one hundred per cent. of the substance of trees and plants consists of carbon or coal, which is consumed but not lost, in burning. The process of ordinary combustion consists in the union of oxygen—one of the gaseous elements of the air—with the carbon of vegetable tissue, forming a compound gas formerly called "carbonic acid," but now "carbonic dioxide." This is the gas which collects in a closed room when an open fire of coals is allowed to burn in it, and is destructive to human life. What is however poison to animals is food for plants. This deadly gas is disseminated everywhere in small quantities through the atmosphere, and it is the marvellous prerogative of the leaf in vegetation to absorb carbonic dioxide from the air and decompose it, and transfer the carbon to the body of the tree. This, however, the leaf is unable to do except under the stimulus of light.

It would be interesting to trace to their origin the particles of carbon which enter into any given plant. The carbonic dioxide which leaves absorb, and out of which they manufacture the main elements working into plant life, enters the atmosphere in a thousand ways. Carbonic dioxide is everywhere the product of vegetable decay. It is given off by animals with every breath they breathe. It is set free in great quantities from burning lime-kilns, and pours out as an invisible gas from every chimney where wood, or coal, or oil is consumed. It is not unlikely that the carbon which entered into the vegetation of Northern Ohio last summer was released a short time before by the vegetable decay in tropical Africa. Nor is it impossible that the furnaces of Newburg and Cleveland in consuming the coal that has lain concealed for ages in the

mines of Southern Ohio, is furnishing the material for next year's rank vegetation in the jungles of India or in the cane-brakes of Louisiana. Very likely some of the corn starch I had for dessert to-day was extracted from carbonic dioxide set free in the burning of Chicago a few years ago.

Various elements entering into plant life are nearly identical in chemical composition. For example, starch and sugar and woody fiber are essentially alike in their component elements. Sugar can be manufactured from starch and woody fiber by boiling them in dilute sulphuric acid. Glucose is at the present time manufactured extensively from starch and corn. It is a mysterious chemistry which enables various plants at certain stages of their annual growth to secure this transformation of starch into sugar. It takes place on an extensive scale in the maple tree when the sap first begins to start in the spring, in the stalk of the sugar cane and sorghum while their seeds are maturing, and in nearly all fruits when they ripen, especially in the grape. It is a curious fact that grape sugar is very different from cane sugar and far less sweet, and when manufacturers transform corn into sugar the product is not cane sugar, but grape sugar, or glucose.

V. THE FLOWER.

The flower serves a more important purpose in vegetable growth than was formerly supposed. The beauty of the flower does not exist wholly for the sake of man, but is evidently attractive to insects, whose visits are necessary to make the flower productive of seeds.

There is sex in plants as well as in animals, and a union of the sexes is almost as necessary in one case as the other to secure fertility. Pistils represent the female element in the flower, and stamens the male element. Stamens provide what is called "pollen." In order to have seed come to perfection, it is essential that pollen be transferred from the stamen to the pistil. But in many vegetable species the stamens and pistils do not belong to the same flower, and in many others not even to the same plant or tree. In Indian corn, for example, the pistil is represented by the silk on the ear, and the stamen is the tassel; but in this case the grains of pollen naturally reach the silk of the ear as they fall from the tassel. At the same time, any one who has had experience in planting different kinds of corn near together, knows how readily the kinds mix. Every gust of wind blows the pollen from the tassel to places more or less distant, and wherever it falls upon the pistil of another kind of corn, a hybrid is formed. In the case of oak and walnut trees, also, the male and female flowers are distinct, and the pollen has to be transported from

one to the other by the wind. In the case of willow and poplar trees the male and female flowers do not even grow upon the same tree. A curious fact connected with the flowers which depend upon the wind for the transportation of their pollen is, that they are without color, without odor, and without honey. The explanation of this will be apparent when we come to speak of those flowers which depend on insects to transport their pollen. Another interesting peculiarity of those flowers which depend upon the wind for their fertilization is, that they produce an enormous amount of pollen. Occasionally we read in the papers of showers of sulphur occurring in the early summer in the vicinity of pine forests. The yellow powder which is mistaken for sulphur, and which sometime accumulates as a scum upon the surface of the water, is nothing else than the pollen of pine trees, though blown, it may be, many miles from its source. The necessity for nature to provide an abundance of pollen for those plants, which require it to be transported by the wind from one to the other, is apparent. The wind is not a good marksman, and, like other poor marksmen, is aided in hitting its object by employing a large charge of fine shot. With millions of pollen grains to blow, some of them will be sure to find the appropriate place.

The most interesting classes of flowers are those which depend on insects to carry the pollen from one to the other. Nearly all such flowers are irregular in form, are decked with gorgeous colors, are odoriferous, are provided with honey, and are in striking contrast with the flowers we have just described, in this respect, that they are provided with a small amount of pollen. The reason why they do not suffer from this last deficiency is that, in the matter of waste, insect carriage is so much more economical than wind carriage.

The dependence of plants upon insects for carrying pollen is not limited to those in which the stamens and pistils are, in separate flowers; but in nearly all cases close attention will reveal interesting contrivances to favor cross-fertilization, or the carrying of pollen from one flower to another. In some flowers containing both stamens and pistils, as in *scrofularia*, the pistil develops earlier than the stamens; so that, to secure fertilization, it must be visited by a honey-bee that has just come from another flower in a later stage of development, whereupon the pistil of the latter is dusted with pollen from the stamen of the former. In other flowers, as in *gentians*, the stamens develop first, and, as the bee becomes dusted with pollen, he is liable to carry it to another flower in a later stage of development, whose pistil is just prepared to receive it. In *houstonia*, a beautiful little blue flower growing in the fields in the early spring, some clusters of flowers have short stamens and a long pistil, while,

in others, the pistil is short and the stamens long. As the insect pushes his head into a flower with long stamens, it becomes dusted with pollen. Upon flying to another, as likely as not, it will be a flower with a long pistil, against which he will rub his head as he searches for honey, and leave the fertilizing pollen upon it. In other flowers, as the *American laurel*, the stamens are so arranged that, when touched by the proboscis of a bee, they spring up suddenly and dust his body with pollen, which he carries to other flowers and leaves upon their pistils. In case of the lady's slipper there are three openings —a large one in front, through which the insect enters, and, in the natural course of things, rubs his head against the pistil, depositing upon it whatever may be on his head; but, owing to a sort of mouse-trap arrangement, the insect, instead of escaping by the same hole through which he entered, is compelled to crawl out through one of two other holes, which are under the stamens, and thus his head becomes dusted with pollen, ready to fertilize the flower of the next lady's slipper he may enter.

The *Iris*, or *flower-de-luce*, presents another interesting arrangement, calling for the agency of insects to secure fertilization. In this case the stamen and pistil are in the same flower, but are placed back to back, and the pistil is above the stamen, so that it is impossible for the pollen to get upon the pistil, except by the aid of insects. The bee plunges into the flower to obtain honey, and, upon withdrawing himself, becomes dusted with pollen. On entering another Iris blossom, he inevitably comes in contact with the pistil, and leaves upon it some of the fertilizing pollen which he undesignedly brought away from the first flower.

The most elaborate contrivances for insect fertilization appear in the *orchids*. The flowers of the orchid are very irregular, and the honey is usually deposited in a long pouch or tube, which can only be reached by a moth possessed with a proboscis of a length corresponding to that of the tube. Sometimes a proboscis an inch and a half long is required. The pollen is deposited in two little clusters attached to a sticky disk, against which the moth is sure to thrust his head when running his proboscis into the tube for honey. On withdrawing, this sticky disk adheres to the head of the moth, and carries with it the bunches of pollen. Upon going to another flower he will deposit the pollen upon its pistils.

The inter-dependence of natural forces is strikingly illustrated in the following train of connected causes. Bumblebees are essential to the propagation of clover. A hundred heads of red clover protected from bees by Mr. Darwin yielded no seed. A second hundred, to which bees were allowed access, yielded 2,700

seeds. An Englishman has worked the problem out thus: British brain and sinew depend upon home-fed beef; the quality and quantity of such beef depend upon the abundance of clover; but clover can only flourish where bumblebees abound; bumblebees can abound only where field-mice are scarce, for field-mice destroy their nests; field-mice will be scarce only where cats abound; and cats are likely to be protected where maiden ladies are numerous. Thus a womanly instinct, of which we are accustomed to make light, lays the foundation for the physical, mental, and moral superiority of the English race.

VI. MISCELLANEOUS.

The few pages of space allotted us will allow only of bare reference to a number of other points. For example, it is not easy to define the distinction between the lower kinds of plants and the lower animals.

"Many animals (such as barnacles, coral-animals, and polyps) are fixed to some support as completely as the plant is to the soil; while many plants are not fixed, and some move from place to place by powers of their own. All animals move some of their parts freely; yet in the extent and rapidity of the motion many of them are surpassed by the common Sensitive Plant, by the Venus's Fly-trap, and some other vegetables; while whole tribes of aquatic plants are so freely and briskly locomotive, that they have, until lately been taken for animals. It is among these microscopic tribes that the animal and vegetable kingdoms most nearly approach each other—so nearly that it is still uncertain where to draw the line between them.

"Since the difficulty of distinguishing between animals and plants occurs only, or mainly, in those forms which, from their minuteness, are beyond ordinary observation, we need not further concern ourselves with the question. One, and probably the most absolute; difference, however, ought to be mentioned because it enables us to see what plants are made for. It is this:

"Vegetables are nourished by the mineral kingdom, that is, by the ground and the air, which supply all they need, and which they are adapted to live upon, while animals are entirely nourished by vegetables. The use of plants, therefore, is to take portions of earth and air, upon which animals cannot subsist at all, and to convert these into something upon which animals can subsist; that is, into food. *All food is produced by plants.*" (Gray's New Lessons and Manual of Botany, pp. 2, and 3.)

Again, it is interesting to note the different portions of plants which are made useful to man. As we have seen, the store of food laid up in the seed for the early nutriment of the embryo, is freely appropriated by man. But in the case

of fruits it is merely an appendange of the seed which we eat. In the case of the turnip and potato, it is really a development of the root, or stalk, which serves for food. In the case of cabbages, we eat the leaves, and draw nutriment from them as the ox does from grass. Sugar is made from the sap of trees and plants.

It is difficult to imagine how the world will get along when the forests have disappeared, and there is no more timber to be employed in the manufacture of houses and furniture and implements. Yet it seems evident that with the present rate of the advance of civilization, wood will soon almost disappear from the uses to which we now put it. And this will usher in not merely the age of pottery and iron, but the age of paper. Paper is in fact, wood, being made from vegetable fiber, and is doubtless susceptible of being used in nearly every place in which wood is now advantageously employed. Car-wheels are now largely made of paper, and the most durable water pails are made of paper. The time is coming when the straw which our Western farmers burn will be manufactured into paper pulp, and that transformed into a condition fit to supply the place now so extensively filled by wood. Then, very likely, farmers will not raise straw for the sake of the wheat, but wheat for the sake of the straw.

NUMBER THREE.

FACTS CONCERNING

LABOR AND CAPITAL.

"He who knows what it is to labor, knows what it is to enjoy."

The Capitalist is one blade of the shears, and the Laborer the other, and it takes both blades to cut.—PERRY.

THE DIFFERENCE.—Tennyson can write a poem on a sheet of paper and make it worth $5,000. That's Genius. Mr. Vanderbilt can write fewer words on a similar sheet and make it worth $50,000,000. That's Capital. The United States can take an ounce and a quarter of gold and stamp upon it, "Twenty Dollars." That's Money. The mechanic can take material worth fifty dollars and make it into a watch worth $100. That's Skill. The merchant can purchase an article worth fifty dollars and sell it for $100. That's Business. A lady can purchase a good bonnet for ten dollars, but prefers to pay $25. because it is more stylish. That's Foolishness. The ditch-digger works ten hours a day, and shovels out three or four tons of earth for one dollar. That's Labor.

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CHARLES E. BOLTON.

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SATURDAY EVENING, - - - - - - DECEMBER 8, 1883.

THIRD ENTERTAINMENT.

MUSICAL PRELUDE, from 6:40 to 7:15. BY THE EDUCATIONAL BUREAU ORCHESTRA.

J. W. MUDRA, Director. - - - - J. M. LELAND, Leader.

PROGRAMME.

1. March—Odeon.....G. Weingarten. 2. Overture—San Souci.....Katla.
3. Waltz—Sweet Violets..Reinhart. 4. Potpourri.....E. N. Catlin.
5. Hamburger Polka.....Komsack.

"My Country, 'Tis of Thee." Tune—America. - - - By the Audience.

LECTURE PRELUDE, from 7:15 to 7:45, - - - REV. WASHINGTON GLADDEN.

SUBJECT: "Wrongs of Workingmen, and How to Right Them."

SINGING SCHOOL, 7:45 to 8:00, - - Conducted by PROF. N. COE STEWART.

☞ Audience please stand first five minutes. ☜

PRESIDING OFFICER. - - - - - - - - - MR. W. D. PATTERSON.

READING, 8:00 to 8:45, - - - - - - BY MISS HELEN POTTER.*

PROGRAMME.

1. Gabriel Grub.....Dickens.
2. Drifting.....T. B. Read.
3. Goin' Somewhere.....Anon.
4. That Boy.....Trowbridge.

READING, 8:45 to 9:30, - - - - - - BY MISS LAURA E. DAINTY.

PROGRAMME.

1. The Kiss Deferred.....Anon.
2. The "Jiners".....Anon.
3. Guilty or Not Guilty?.....Anon.
4. The Brakeman at Church.....Burdette.

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SPECIAL NOTICES.—Fourth Entertainment, Saturday Evening, December 15th, JOHN B. GOUGH, Esq. SUBJECT: "The Powers That Be." (New.)

HOW TO GET THE BOOKS BOUND.—Please take the complete series of "BOOKS FOR THE PEOPLE," either of this season or last, (twelve numbers 1881–82 series, ten numbers of 1882–83 series,) to the LEADER JOB ROOM, 146 Superior street, and Mr. J. GEORGE ZAPF, Book-Binder, will bind the pamphlets in beautiful red cloth for thirty-five cents each series, cash paid in advance.

If only a few of the numbers are missing, Mr. ZAPF may possibly be able to complete the series. The pamphlets will then be ready for delivery in thirty days.

MAKE all you can, save all you can, give all you can.—*Wesley.*

THE Nineteenth century is the century ot the workingmen.—*Gladstone.*

IF you would know the value of money go and try to borrow some; for he that goes a-borrowing goes a-sorrowing.—*Franklin.*

WHAT men want is not talent, it is purpose; not the power to achieve, but the will to labor. * * Nothing ages like laziness.—*Bulwer-Lytton.*

MONEY is powerfnl for good if divinely used. Give it plenty of air and it is as sweet as the hawthorne; shut it up and it cankers and breeds worms.—*George MacDonald.*

TWO young men came in from the country to see New York City. Astonished at a dude on the street, one remarked to the other: "Gosh, what things we see when we don't have no guns!"

A MAN was sitting for his photograph. The operator said: "Now, sir, look kind o' pleasant. Smile a little." The man smiled, and then the operator exclaimed: "Oh, that will never do. It is too wide for the instrument!"

DR. STORRS tells the story of a man who remarked to a penurious companion that the kingdom of Satan was to be destroyed, and asked him if he wasn't glad of it. "Yes," he replied, "I suppose so; but it seems a pity to have anything wasted!"

"THIS example isn't right," said a schoolboy to his teacher, as he exhibited his arithmetic. "How so?" "Why, it figures the interest on $300 at six per cent." "Well, isn't that all right?" "No, ma'am. Pa always figures on thirteen per cent., and if there are twenty-four days over he calls it a month! I guess this is a misprint."

A PUPIL-TEACHER, who has just received an appointment in a quiet country village, says: "Among the scanty furniture I espied a three-legged stool. "Is that the dunce's stool?" I said to a little girl of five. The eyes sparkled, and and the curls nodded assent, and the lips rippled out: 'I suppose it is. The teacher always sits on that!'"

LORD DUFFERIN relates that when he came home from India to get married he found no carriage awaiting him at the little Irish railway station, and he had to hire a common jaunting-car. Going along, he asked the driver if there was any news. "Nothing," said he, "except that pretty Kate Hamilton is going to marry that one-eyed Dufferin."

By courtesy of WIDE AWAKE, the Popular Magazine for Young Folks and the Family. $2.50 per year. D. Lothrop & Co., Publishers, Boston.

PETER COOPER

Died April 7th, 1883, at the age of 92. Very poor, in early life, he had but one year's schooling, and that only every other day. At 17, he came to New York without a dollar. For five years he earned but fifty cents a week. For thirty years he carried on business alone, making glue in the morning, selling it in the afternoon and keeping his accounts in the evening. In this and the iron business, he became very rich—gave $2,000,000 to Cooper Institute for the poor, and died the best-loved man in America.

THE GUARD ON THE RHINE.

(DIE WACHT AM RHEIN.)

f *Cres.*

1. There comes a call like thunder's peal, The break-ers roar, the clank of steel; The
2. By hundred thousands forth they stream, Their eyes like flashing light'ning gleam, The
3. To heav'n they raised their gleaming eyes. The heroes saw them from their skies, And
4. Loud rings the oath, the wa-ters flow, In the free breeze the banners blow; The

ff

Rhine! the Rhine! the glorious Rhine! Who will protect the riv-er's line?
Ger-man hon-est, strong and brave; These will the sa-cred land-mark save.
swore, with yearning for the strife. "Dear is the free Rhine as our life!"
Rhine! the Rhine! un-fet-tered Rhine! All Ger-man-y will guard its line.

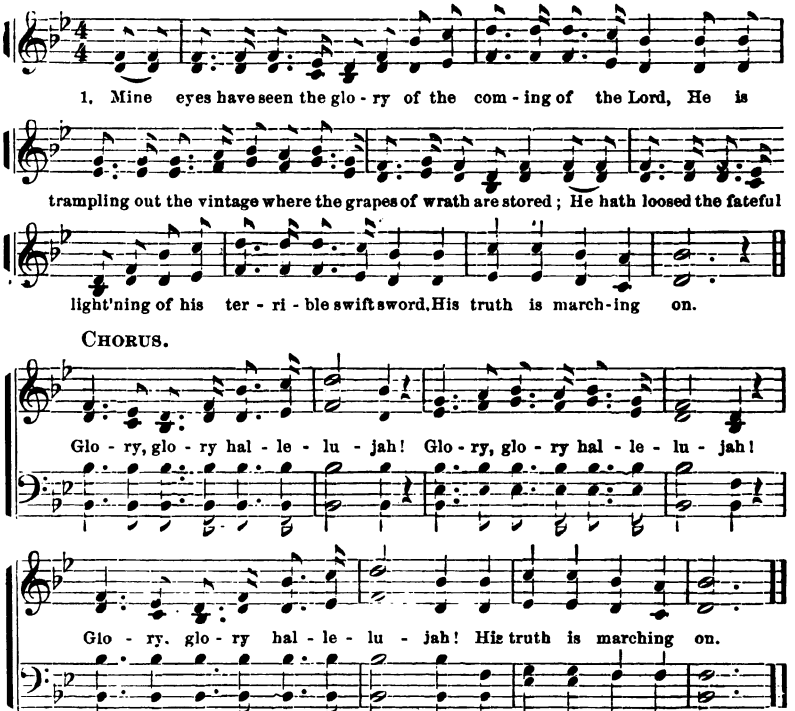
CHORUS.

Dear Fatherland, be comfort thine, Dear Fatherland, thou need'st not pine; Firm stands thy

shield, the guard, the guard on the Rhine, Firm stands thy shield, the guard, the guard on the Rhine

"Die Wacht am Rhein." Carl Wilhelm wrote the music. In 1870 all Germany sang it. Bands played it, as the victorious armies entered Paris, beneath the Arc de Triomph, and as they returned to Berlin, with Emperor William, through the Brandenburg Gate. Again it was sung by Emperor and people when the statue of Germania was unveiled on Niederwald on the Rhine.

BATTLE HYMN OF THE REPUBLIC. (JOHN BROWN.)



2 I have seen Him in the watchfires of a hundred circling camps,
They have builded Him an altar in the evening dews and damps;
I can read His righteous sentence by the dim and flaring lamps,
His day is marching on.—*Chorus.*

3 I have read a fiery gospel, writ in burnished rows of steel:
"As ye deal with my contemners, so with you my grace shall deal!"
Let the Hero, born of woman, crush the serpent with his heel.
Since God is marching on.—*Chorus.*

4 He has sounded forth the trumpet that shall never call retreat;
He is sifting out the hearts of men before His judgment seat;
Oh! be swift, my soul, to answer Him! be jubilant, my feet.
Our God is marching on.—*Chorus.*

5 In the beauty of the lilies, Christ was born across the sea;
With a glory in his bosom that transfigures you and me!
As he died to make men holy, let us die to make men free.
While God is marching on.—*Chorus.*

This "War Song" was written in November. 1861, by Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, when many thousands of volunteers were marching to the front. It is sung to the tune of "John Brown's Body."

SOME FACTS ABOUT LABOR.

SARAH K. BOLTON.

LABOR IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

The following is condensed from "Labor in Europe and America,'' by Edward Young, Chief of the United States Bureau of Statistics.

LABOR IN GREAT BRITAIN.

England boasts of its wealth and prosperity. The riches of England have yearly increased, but during the present century the condition of the farm laborers has yearly become more miserable. Three great causes may be assigned for the present condition of the English farm-laborer; the English land-system; the system of poor law relief, and the great local increase of population. In the old time, the value of the land was nothing; what it would produce was everything. Now the land itself is valued most, and its produce least. The rents paid by the farmers of England are stated to be only from one to three per cent. on the estimated value of the land, and many of them, after keeping their laborers on starvation wages, find it hard to pay that rent.

"An English village is far more pleasing to the eye than a manufacturing town. An English cottage makes a better picture than a tenement house. The cottages in which they live, which are such a pleasant adjunct to the landscape, are, in too many instances, hovels in which the employers would not stable their horses; hovels without ventilation, drainage, or the surroundings necessary for ordinary decency; hovels which have bred a race of men who, from want of domestic comfort, spend every spare hour in the pot-house, and who have nothing to look forward to but to be buried in a pauper's grave; hovels which have bred a race of women whose maidenly modesty vanished unborn in consequence of the scenes they were obliged to witness through the want of proper sleeping accommodations. This want of decent cottages throughout England arises in a great measure from the law of primogeniture and entail.

The land-owner is only a tenant for life; he may, perchance, like to add to his estate and power by purchase, but in too many cases he will not spend one penny to build decent cottages, or to improve those already on his estate, but will screw down his tenants, endeavoring by every means to save money for his younger children.

"In 1871, the average wages of English farm-laborers were twelve shillings (three dollars) a week. On such pay it was impossible for a married man to provide proper food for himself and family; meat was a rarity, to be tasted once or twice a year; a little bacon might, perhaps, be indulged in once a week; for the rest of the time dry bread was the chief fare.

"But the agricultural laborer has at last taken the matter into his own hands. On a dark, rainy night, in February, 1872, Joseph Arch first stood up under the chestnut tree at Wellesbourne and laid the foundation of that great movement which has since spread over all England. His work has already brought forth good fruit; the average rate of farm wages throughout England has since risen, and the hours of labor have been reduced. In the northern counties of England eighteen shillings ($4.50) a week are now paid for farm labor; in the middle districts, sixteen shillings, and in the southern fourteen and twelve shillings. But Mr. Arch has experienced the greatest opposition and abuse in consequence of his labors on behalf of the class from which he has risen."—*J. S. Stanley James.*

In this case, certainly, supply and demand did not altogether regulate the price of wages. Public opinion had much to do with it, caused by agitation. Prof. Francis A. Walker, President of the Institute of Technology, Boston, in his recently published Political Economy, p. 281, and also in his Wages Question, page 363, shows how sympathy and respect for labor will advance wages.

THE HOMES OF WORKING PEOPLE.

Our Consul in Glasgow writes: "Home comforts, in the American sense, are but little known to the laboring man in Glasgow, living for the most part in great tenement buildings, where ten or a dozen, sometimes twenty or thirty families, occupy a single tenement; each family possessed of but one, or at most two, ill-ventilated, dreary, dirty rooms. In 1870, the estimated numbers were: Families each occupying a single room, 29,884; those occupying only two rooms, 43,403. And imagine 8,000 of these families congregated on the space of four blocks! In Liverpool, in a room 10¼ feet long and 9 feet broad, a family of six persons were found. In hundreds of cases adult sons and daughters sleep in the same room with their parents, lodgers also sharing the miserable quarters."

Mr. Stanley James says: "The operatives, crowded together in huge workshops, their labor is more unhealthy than that of the agriculturist. Their homes in the large cities are often a disgrace to civilization. The iron-workers are rough, ignorant, much given to the British vice of indulgence in strong drink, and often brutal when in their cups. Hard-drinking, hard-fighting lot as they are, debarred from higher aims or tastes, they have yet in them the blood of heroes, and many noble deeds are done by them.

"The English mechanic is the superior of the other workers; but in education and social standing, how inferior to the American! His intelligence is mostly confined to his trade; apprenticed at an early age, his only education has been that of the workshop. Outside his trade he is too often ignorant of everything. Let it be understood that I speak generally. I have seen a Manchester mechanic read Newton's 'Principia' in the original. I know a London mechanic well read in Latin and Greek, and who is learning Hebrew in order that he may study the Scriptures in that tongue. As a rule, I find that wages of mechanics in the Eastern States and large cities generally are 100 per cent. higher than in England, and the cost of living does not increase proportionately."

LABOR IN FRANCE.

There are 9,000,000 families in France, 1,000,000 of whom are in easy circumstances. Land is very equally distributed among the bulk of the population. Agricultural laborers are divided into two classes—those who are employed by the year and live on the farm, and those who work by the day. Those who live on the farm, in addition to food and lodging, receive usually about $29 a year in money and the rest in farm produce. The day laborer receives about $70 a year, and increases his income by weaving, wooden-shoe making, sawing and building.

The food of the French workingman is, as a general rule, substantially inferior to that to which the Englishman is accustomed. Many a French factory-hand never has anything better for his breakfast than a large slice of common sour bread, rubbed over with an onion to give it flavor; for dinner, some soup, potatoes or carrots, and sometimes a small piece of pork, which costs about ten cents a pound; and, for their last meal, they eat the meat of which their soup was composed. According to Dr. Cenveilhier, the population of France is not sufficiently well nourished. He calculates the daily consumption of alimentary matter by a strong, healthy man, to be at present from 46 to 49 ounces, viz.: 28 ounces water, 14 ounces carbon, and 7 ounces azote or

nitrogen, or about 600 pounds of dry food annually. The average consumption of the whole population is only about 400 pounds annually, and, as the rich are well fed, the poor must be much underfed.

The French workman wears a blue linen blouse and trousers, which suit costs him about $2.50, and lasts nearly two years. Speaking generally, home comforts are not to be met with in the dwellings of the French workmen. Their houses in the small towns and in the country are mere lath and plaster erections, ill calculated to resist either the heat of the summer or the cold of winter. M. Jules Simon remarks, in speaking of the wretched condition of the working people in the French towns, that luckily they are not aware of the extent of their misery; and, in proof of this, he quotes an old woman, lying on some wretched straw in a dark cellar, who, pointing to her neighbor on the wet, bare floor, said: "I am not rich, but, thank God, I have my pallet of straw."

Wages are very low. In some towns a mechanic receives 40 to 50 cents a day; if very skillful, from 60 to 80 cents. Valenciennes has almost entirely ceased to produce the lace which bears its name. The workmen who make the real Valenciennes lace earn 26 cents a day; those who make the imitation, as it is made in Belgium, earn 30 cents for twelve hours' work. The workers in coarse lace earn 25 cents a day.

"At Nantes the general price paid to workwomen is 15 cents a day and food, whether for dress-making, plain work, mending or ironing. In the manufactories they get 25 cents, without food. The length of their day's work is from 8 in the morning till 8 at night; subtracting two hours for meals, it leaves ten hours' labor; and so a woman, who has employed three years of her existence in acquiring a certain dexterity, ends by earning 1½ cents an hour to the end of her existence!"

In making artificial flowers, in Paris, women can earn 60 cents for a day's work of eleven hours. Women pierce rubies as pivots for watches, and make mosaics with stones sent from Florence. Their work-tables are placed near the windows of their cottages, and there father, mother and children, work all day, when household cares, preparation for meals, cutting wood in the mountains, or the sowing of some poor piece of ground, does not call them away. The women who cut rubies often earn tolerably good wages, but usually not over 30 cents, and the average is about 15 cents a day.

Glass-cutting comprises four different operations: Smoothing down, which is done on an iron wheel, with pure, fine, damp sand; the first polish done on

a fine wheel; the second polish on a wooden wheel, with powdered pumicestone, dampened; and the final polish on a cork wheel, with dry, powdered tin. If glass is to be engraved, recourse is had either to a diamond point or to a process which is quite complicated, and consists in covering all the surface with a slight varnish of wax and turpentine, drawing the design on the wax and pouring fluor-hydric acid on the parts laid bare by the burin. The business of cutting is generally entrusted to women in the factories. They do it marvelously well. It is, however, a very unhealthy trade, as bending over the wheel and having the hands in water all day, exposes them to lung troubles.

The want of a good education or apprenticeship reduces a great number of women and young girls to trades which scarcely support them—such as basket-making, broom and feather-duster making, and stuffing chairs. The poor women who make wreaths of immortelles and shavings of ox-horns, earn barely enough to buy bread with. In the making of ladies' cloaks and mantillas, women earn from 40 to 50 cents for twelve hours' labor, out of which one hour is given to meals and rest. Usually, however, they sew thirteen hours, without a minute's rest, six hours of it by candle-light, and, if they are very swift and clever, they can earn two francs (40 cents).

Not less than 12,000 women are employed in the glove trade in the department of the Loire alone. In cutting gloves the women earn from $9 to $14 a month! Glove-stitching requires the most exquisite neatness. The stained gloves are not only left on the workwoman's hands, but they are obliged to pay for the material.

In 1837 the workman's day was often eighteen hours long in many French manufactories. Now adults are limited by law to twelve hours' labor.

STEEL WORKS AT LE CREUSOT.

There are employed at these works 15,000 men, who turn out a daily product of 500 tons of iron and steel. They make all kinds of machinery, from a marine engine, down. They build 100 locomotives per annum. Thirty large steam-hammers are constantly at work on their forgings. They have eighteen locomotives and 800 cars for their own use, besides what they use of the railroad company. The owner, Mr. Schneider, has four schools for the education of the children of his workmen, paying for them himself.

LABOR IN GERMANY.

The immigration into this country, from 1820 to 1879, was 2,821,347 persons. The wages, in 1870, were as follows: In coal mines in Hanover, average annual

earnings, $135.53; coal mines at Kniggenbrucke, monthly, $12.29; iron works, "Vulcan," contract workers, 63 cents a day; ordinary hands, 46 cents; coal mines near Lauban, ordinary laborers, 11 cents a day; salt works at Lunenburg, $9.97 per month. In cotton goods, in Plauen, Saxony, weavers, twelve hours a day, from $2.88 to $3.06 per week; in Dulkken, Prussia, weavers, from $3.24 to $5.04. Wool assorters, in Saxony, from 38 to 48 cents a day; women, 84 cents a week, counting nine hours for a day; wool-shearers, thirteen hours a day, $1.38 per week. In making fringes, the lowest wages are paid to those who stitch the design to the prepared paper, viz, from four-fifths of a cent to 1 1/5 cents per hour. Adults can earn from 16 to 28 cents per day. A family of five, if diligent, can earn $5.00 a week. At the machine shops at Sachsenhausen, machine locksmiths earn $3.24 per week; by piece $6.48 per week; engineers $24.30 per month. Iron molders earn from $7.20 to $8.64 per week. The daily wages of mechanics in Barmen, Prussia, in 1873, of bricklayers, carpenters, miners, machinists, were 96 cents and upwards. Experienced agricultural laborers received $9.00 a month, with board. Many received only from $2.88 to $4.32 per month. In the iron foundries and machine shops of Berlin, best machinists receive $7.20 per week, while the ordinary receive $5.76. In a large factory, where damask velvets and reps are made, men earn a trifle over $3.00 a week, and women less than $2.00 a week. They live largely on coffee and potatoes.

The consul from Saxony says: One of the most noticeable features of the homes of the laboring classes, not only in Germany but throughout those parts of continental Europe which I have visited, is their squalor and wretchedness. Most of those I looked into were meanly furnished, even wanting what, in America, would be considered the indispensable furniture and utensils of the poorest household. The food of the laborer and his family usually consists of a substitute for coffee made from chicory, and coarse black bread in the morning and evening, and a cheap soup made from vegetables, with black bread, at noon. Occasionally they will have a piece of meat, but generally this would not happen more than once a week. When wages go up, the extra money earned goes to the beer shop to pay for what they consider the one great luxury of life, plenty of beer.

Perhaps the hardest condition of the laborer of Germany, and in fact of all Europe, grows out of the enforced military service from all persons capable of bearing arms. It means the absolute loss of not less than three years out of the productive period of every able-bodied man's life, during which the pay is scarcely enough to supply the beer consumed by the soldier. As a consequence

the family is deprived of all support from this source, and when the soldier is the head of a family, they struggle through a period of wretchedness and poverty beyond description."

CO-OPERATION.

Charles Barnard, in *Scribner* for May, 1876, gives some examples of co-operation, which he defines as "giving the laborers in a shop, mill, foundry, ship or farm, a share in the direction, profits and losses of the business, either in whole or in part."

In January, 1872, a number of machinists and other workmen organized at Beaver Falls, Pa., the "Beaver Falls Co-operative Foundry Association," for the purpose of manufacturing stoves, hollow ware, and fine castings. The capital was fixed at $25,000, but all the capital they could command did not reach quite $4,000. The Association has now a membership of twenty-seven persons with a paid-up capital of $16,000. Each share has regularly earned an annual dividend, over and above all expenses and interest on plant, of from twelve to fifteen per cent. A few outside hands are employed, but the members have the preference. In the control of the Association each member has one vote only, and each is expected to attend the quarterly meeting of the stockholders. The larger part of the stockholders are regularly employed in the foundry, and are paid wages for the time employed. Others merely receive dividends on their stock.

In the fall of 1867 thirty workingmen in Somerset, Mass., collected a capital of $14,000, and began to manufacture stoves and hollow ware. The ownership of five shares entitled a man to work in the foundry at regular wages. Since it began work the stockholders have been paid dividends to the extent of forty-four per cent., either in cash or new stock. Its total sales have reached almost half a million dollars. It has now a capital of $30,000, partly paid in cash and partly earned, and a surplus fund of $28,924. There are now fifty-three members, of whom thirty are employed in the foundry.

The "Equitable Co-operative Foundry Company, of Rochester, N. Y.," was started in 1867, with a capital of $30,000, divided into shares of $100 of the forty-five contributors to the capital. All save two or three obtained work in the foundry. Nine directors govern the company. These elect annually a president, treasurer, secretary and manager or superintendent. The salaries of these officers are fixed by the board of directors. The stockholders receive a dividend of twelve per cent. on the capital stock; the remainder, if any, is a dividend on labor, and apportioned to the members in proportion to their general

earnings. The company now holds a capital of $100,000, wholly made up of the profits of the business in nine years. No member holding less than $5,000 in stock has been allowed to draw his dividends in cash. Hereafter all dividends are to be paid in cash. The limit of their dividends is placed at seventeen per cent., and all over that is divided among the members according to their earnings. The dividend this year (1876) being twelve per cent. there is nothing to divide. The company now employs one hundred and twenty-five men, of whom few, save the original forty-five, are stockholders. Its first president held office four years, and is now at the head of its Chicago branch.

Another experiment in co-operation has been tried at Springfield, Vt. The capital stock was fixed at $5,000, in shares of $5 each. Every member must work in the shop at fixed wages. Each man must take twenty shares in the capital stock and each woman at least five shares. Each member must return to the company one-fourth of his earnings, the same to be considered as capital, for which he receives certificates of stock. No person can join the company without first having worked in the shop for wages for three months, and then only by the consent of a majority of the members. Any person may apply for admission, provided he is frugal, of good moral character, and does not use intoxicating drinks. Any person may be discharged by vote of the majority, and the full value of his shares in legal funds is restored to him. Any member dissatisfied with his or her wages may appeal to a majority of the members, and their decision is final. No member shall be discharged for dull trade, but the hours of labor shall be reduced pro rata for all. The shares cannot be transferred. Each member on entering, receives a note, with good security, for the whole amount contributed. If during the first three months he wishes to withdraw, he can do so, and the note will be promptly paid, with interest at six per cent. for the time it was employed.

The experiment has proved a great success. The number of applicants for admittance has been something wonderful. Not a day has been lost, neither have the wages been cut down. The company keeps house for all its members. It hires two large dwellings, and all the work people live together. They get a better table for less money than at an ordinary boarding house, a large reading room, the use of a piano, and care in sickness. Most of them are, of course, unmarried. On the walls of the shops are the names of the work people, and the foreman keeps a record of the time of each. In wages the men receive from $7.50 to $16.50 per week; the girls from $6.00 to $7.50. Thus far the plan has worked to the satisfaction of all.

Many attempts at co-operation in America have failed, Mr. Barnard thinks, either on account of disagreement among the men, or "because each is particularly hungry after immediate and handsome dividends. Some of them, if not all, have keen appetites for an office in the company."

In England, co-operation has been in many instances most successful. In 1879 there were in Great Britain 973 co-operative societies, with a membership of not less than 525,958, and a share and loan capital of not less than $34,000,000. On this capital they made sales in 1879 of nearly $100,000,000. Mr. Barnard, in *Scribner* May and June, 1876, and also in his book "Co-operation in Business," gives an account of several institutions of this kind.

The most famous is the "Rochdale Equitable Pioneers' Society," at Rochdale, the home of John Bright. Mr. Holyoake has written an interesting book about it, "Self-help, or a History of Co-operation in Rochdale," and Mr. Thornton, in his book on "Labor," has written of it. In the year 1844, in the midst of great depression in the flannel trade, twenty-eight weavers of Toad Lane agreed to club together a small sum to purchase tea and sugar. Each put in four cents a week, and purchased, at a wholesale store in Manchester, flour, sugar, butter and oatmeal. Each took what he wanted and paid the current price. When all had been sold, they were surprised that they had saved so much. A small room was hired, and it was arranged that one of their number should act as salesman two evenings each week. At first great fun was made of these men, but the laugh was turned on the other side years ago. Two years after the experiment began, meat was added, and then a dry goods department. Shoemaking was commenced in 1852, also tailoring and a wholesale department. In 1856, twelve years after it started, the society possessed a capital of $64,500. They soon erected expensive flour mills. In 1876 they had 8,892 members, with funds of over $1,000,000 and $250,000 profits.

Each customer, when he makes a purchase, receives a tin ticket denoting the sum he has paid. There is no credit given. At the end of each quarter the accounts are made up, and after five per cent. has been paid to capital, two and one-half per cent. to an education fund, the balance of profits is divided among the holders of the tickets. The capital is raised in five dollar shares. There are thirteen or more branch stores. At the central building reading room there are over one hundred of the best British newspapers, quarterlies and magazines. After use, they are sold at auction to such members as choose to buy. The library has over 10,000 standard books. There is also a collection of scientific instruments for hire. A good telescope can be hired for eight cents a day or twenty-five cents a week, and a first-rate microscope for four cents a day.

There are class rooms for art and science classes, where chemistry, physiology, physics and drawing are taught. The students who pass examinations at the close of the sessions are entitled to Queen's prizes, consisting of medals, books, etc. Near by is the Rochdale District Co-operative Corn-mill, and the Rochdale Co-operative Manufacturing Society. In each of these the Equitable Pioneers own shares. Mr. Barnard adds: "It was from the scanty pennies, saved with difficulty and sore denial by the flannel weavers of Toad Lane, that this vast business sprung. This is the honorable reward of honest pennies and shillings, saved with prudence and managed with skill; the outcome of an earnest effort to avoid the dram-shop, the pawnbroker's, and the workhouse. * * It often happens that the very men who, while they were poor, cried out against the selfishness of capital, become quite as selfish the moment they are capitalists themselves. There is but one remedy for this—education." Women may become members of the Rochdale store and vote in its proceedings. Some married women join because their husbands will not take the trouble, and some in self-defense to prevent their husbands from spending their money in drink.

The "Leeds Industrial Co-operative Society, Limited," has 16,000 shareholders, thirty branch stores, a shoe manufactory, and a flour mill five stories high. The profits in 1876 were $175,000.

The Leicester Co-operative Society has thirty-three branch stores, six butcher-shops, four coal offices, a drapery and carpet store, dress and mantle department, tailoring shop, boot and shoe store, sewing machine, carpenters, joiners and whitesmiths' departments. It maintains a free reading room, and a penny bank for the members' children. In 1875 it had nearly 6,000 members, did a business of $690,000, and made a profit of about $75,000. Mr. Barnard states in his book that information as to how to carry forward co-operative industries may be obtained from the Central Co-operative Board of New York, at 7 Clinton Place, New York City.

London has various co-operative associations. At the Civil Service Co-operative Society in the Haymarket, persons in the civil service of the Crown, and officers in the army and navy, clergymen, lawyers, doctors, and their widows and children, may become members by paying 62 cents for one year and $2.50 for five years. The army and navy stores, 117 Victoria street, have shares of the value of five dollars each, and holders of one share or more are entitled to participation in the profits. It has become one of the great retail stores of the world. There are over 13,000 shareholders, and over 17,000 annual subscribers, who pay $1.25 the first year, and 62½ cents each succeeding year, and have

no share in the profits, only obtain their goods at very low prices. The sales for six months in 1880 were nearly $5,000,000. The net profit was over $80,000.

Professor Fawcett describes two remarkable societies in Paris. In 1852 seventeen masons united without capital. They agreed to lay by in a chest one-tenth of their daily earnings. In two years they had saved $3,400. Six years after, they had 107 members, and a capital of over $70,000. The wages paid are those current in the trade; after a due provision has been made for wear and tear, and a proper sum set aside as a reserve, two-fifths are given to capital and three-fifths as a bonus on labor.

In 1848 fourteen pianoforte makers formed an association. They had no capital and scarcely any tools. After enduring many hardships they saved $125. A baker offered to take a $90 piano and pay them in bread. This for a long time was their chief support. They worked in a small room in an obscure part of Paris. They have now become owners of a large manufactory and annually do a business of $40,000. They would not have accomplished this had they not been temperate, of determined will power, and practicing the greatest economy. A society of zinc workers near Liege employs 6,500 hands, and has seventeen branch establishments in Rhenish Prussia, France and Sweden. In 1851 in Germany Dr. Schulze-Delitzsch founded the first Credit Union or People's Bank.

It is evident that an individual laborer cannot usually obtain the use of capital, because he cannot give security; but, as a member of an association which becomes responsible, he is strong. The capital required is obtained by the subscriptions of members, and by loans on the credit of the association. In 1878 there were 948 Credit Unions with a total of 480,507 members in Germany alone. (See paper entitled "German Co-operative Unions" in February *Atlantic Monthly*, 1881.)

BUILDING ASSOCIATIONS.

The employer who helps his workmen to obtain a good home, or the employee who helps himself to obtain one, does a good thing. A Building Society which is composed of such men that it can be trusted, is a most helpful thing to society. These associations are constantly multiplying, both in this country and abroad. In England and Wales there are 944 societies, with a membership of over 320,000, and a share capital of over $90,000,000.

One of the best known of these, described by Professor Fawcett in his "Political Economy," and by Mr. Barnard, is the Artisans, Laborers and General Dwellings Company. Its most extensive scheme is the Shaftesbury Park estate. The streets are macadamized and shaded with trees, the houses are of stone and brick, each with a garden in front, a large yard in the rear, and plenty of flowers. Six thousand persons live here, and, as soon as one tenant moves away, scores are ready to take his place. The death rate in London is 22 in 1,000, while here it is only 12 in 1,000. Some of the houses are sold by weekly installments, and some are rented at $1.25 to $2.00 or $3.00 a week. The company has its own stoneyard and carpenter's shop, provides a hall for every two hundred people, a large public square and library building, and gives prizes for the best kept gardens and the best window-plants raised on the estate, and has a savings bank open to all. It has wash-houses open at low rates to every family. No saloon is permitted on the estate. Lord Shaftesbury said, when the corner-stone of the first house was laid, and he commended their proposed library and club-rooms: "In those intellectual amusements, take care that your good wives and daughters are not excluded, for you will find there is no social progress without the aid of women."

The building society commonly has two classes of members—those holding paid-up shares, valued perhaps at $125, and earning 7 per cent. interest, and those holding "subscribing shares," on which they pay monthly installments of 62 cents and receive 6 per cent. interest. Some are simple depositors, who lend their money, subject to call, for 5 per cent. The first two have each one vote in the election of officers. Members can withdraw, at a month's notice, by paying a small fee for the adjustment of accounts. If a member wishes to build, he pays for having the property surveyed, the money is loaned, and he pays in monthly installments. The rates are all rigidly fixed by tables prepared by an actuary, so there can be no dispute. The directors are paid by agreement, and usually get less than 5 per cent. of the profits. In dividing profits (which come from the difference in interest paid by the borrowers and that paid to the lenders), the society takes one-half, which it holds as a contingent fund, and the other half is divided among its members.

Mr. Barnard says of our societies, which of course differ somewhat in different States: "There are but two classes of members—the lenders and the borrowers. The lenders join by paying $1 for every share they take up, and agreeing to repeat this payment every month. The American borrower who wishes an advance upon a house, attends a society meeting, and, if he bids the highest, receives the money the society has accumulated." Mr. Barnard be-

lieves in the English plan of paying to the borrower, who is not able to go forward, a portion of the installments he has paid. "As it is, the bank turns him out if he cannot pay, takes the house, and keeps the money. It may be said that this is the usual custom in lending money on any house—the lender gets the house and the money, too, whether it be a regular savings bank, private individual, or loan association. This does not make it any less unjust. Two-thirds or one-half of the installments paid should certainly be returned to the borrower, or his heirs, when circumstances over which he has no control, make it no longer possible to continue the payments."

Massachusetts passed a law, in 1879, giving "Co-operative Savings Fund and Loan Associations" a legal status. In Pennsylvania there are said to be 1,700 such co-operative banks. The Tradesmen Building and Loan Association, of Philadelphia, reports, for 1880, an income of $71,792. The Workingmen's Building Society, of St. Paul, Minn., reports its assets at $126,988. The Workingmen's, of Wilmington, Del., reports assets at $143,364.

Since Peabody left nearly $3,000,000 to be devoted to good homes for the worthy poor in London, other cities have followed the example. Two societies in London have each spent $1,500,000 for that purpose. At Liverpool 503 miserable houses have been demolished and good ones built in their stead. The same has been done in Edinburgh; also in New York. The Peabody buildings are immense stone and brick blocks, five and six stories high, built in thirteen of the worst portions of London. The rent of each room per week is usually 50 cents, which includes the free use of laundries, bath-rooms and sculleries. The rules about the buildings are simple. Children must be vaccinated, rent paid weekly in advance, passages swept, steps cleaned every morning before 10 o'clock, no carpets beaten after this hour, no dogs permitted, no intemperate tenants retained, and gas turned off at 11 o'clock. There are many more applicants than can be received. Large families are not accepted, Mr. Peabody probably believing, with John Stuart Mill and Prof. Fawcett, that over-population is one of the greatest causes of poverty and low wages. The latter says: "If, in a country like England, the possible increase of population is not adequately restrained by prudential habits, the general condition of the nation will become more and more unsatisfactory, and pauperism will assume formidable proportions." Mill said: "No one has a right to bring creatures into life to be supported by other people."

At Lausanne, Switzerland, a company, with $40,000 capital, erects dwellings for workingmen; one at Geneva with $60,000, and one at Berne with $60,-

000, and another with $200,000. Some of these homes have only one room besides the kitchen and garden, and rent for $30 a year.

Mr. Barnard, in *Scribner*, June, 1876, tells of the interest the Waltham Watch Factory has taken in its employees. To induce the people to become permanent residents, the company bought a hundred acres of woodland opposite its works, and, after laying out a large public square, erected dwellings of every style and price, offered them to the people on liberal terms, and advanced money to operatives to build houses in their own way. It also offered shares on liberal terms, and a large number of the employees are stockholders, many of these being women. The men remain in the employ of the company for years, but it is said that the young women invariably get married. The Pullman Car Company, near Chicago, and the Fairbanks Scale Company, at St. Johnsbury, Vt., have done a somewhat similar work for their employees.

HOW CAPITAL CAN HELP LABOR.

In Austria, board is wholly or partially provided by 379 establishments for 46,739 workmen. In some factories food is distributed at wholesale prices. In others, the workmen start co-operative stores. The capital is, in many cases, raised from loans advanced by the employers. Many factories have their own baking ovens, and furnish a good dinner at a moderate price. Seven hundred and twenty-three establishments, which employ 141,764 hands, afford support in case of sickness, and compensation in case of accident or death. By 185 establishments employing 30,498 hands, the hospital fees for sick workmen are paid entirely. In five factories the expenses for the care and cure of the sick are defrayed by the joint contribution of employers and workmen. Those workmen who pay one per cent., in case of sickness receive medicine and medical attendance free. Those who pay two per cent., receive support to the amount of half their wages when ill. Where they contribute five or six per cent., pensions are given, and annuities to their widows.

Seven factories support drawing schools; fifteen music schools. Nurseries for the infants of workwomen are numerous.

In Stockholm, Sweden, an association called the Fosterland's Union, encourages savings. During the last few years it has circulated gratuitously about 20,000 pamphlets and circulars, explaining the advantages of small savings. It awards premiums for encouraging permanent savings. At the Motala Iron Machine Works there is a society of 180 workmen pledged to abstain from whisky. At no workshop is whisky allowed on the premises.

In all parts of Sweden the principal employers are erecting model dwellings, with the intention that their workmen may ultimately, by annual payments, become the owners of them. Each house is usually designed for two families, is 46 feet long, 28 feet wide, and one story and one-half high. There are three rooms for each family. Each house has a thrifty vegetable garden, and a flower garden. Architecturally they are very tasteful, much more so than the men could build for themselves, and, therefore, they are a means of cultivation in taste, and increase the value of real estate. The occupants are charged about $16 a year rent, and this is usually paid for by the vegetable garden. The cost of each house, exclusive of land, is about $1,300.

Companies are now being formed in Norway to build better homes for working people. Neat, skilled, and able-bodied workmen cannot come from squalid homes where food is poorly cooked and ventilation and drainage unknown. A pot of flowers in the window of shop or home, and a picture on the walls, are wonderful educators. All through Scandinavia one sees flowers in every window, be the home ever so modest. What wonder that the people are honest, the doors of a Norwegian never being locked, and that they are most tender, alike to children and to animals.

Some of the wealthy mill-owners of Russia provide lodgings for their work-people, constructed on sanitary principles, also hospitals, which the proprietors build and the men help support by one per cent. of their wages.

At the Cockerill Iron and Steel Works, at Seraing, Belgium, houses are built for workmen, and attached to each department of the works is a large dining-room, with kitchen, and custody of each man's provision. There are baths for the miners, a dispensary where medicine is given free of charge, a hospital and an orphanage.

Krupp, at his steel works in Essen, Prussia, where 17,000 men are employed, has built about 3,000 houses for his workmen, and more are being erected. Unmarried men to the number of about 1,800 are lodged and boarded at low rates. Meat and vegetables for dinner, one-half pound of butter and quarter pound of coffee are furnished for $1.18 per week. Bread is furnished at cost. About 10,000 loaves of rye bread and 5,000 of wheat are baked each day. There are stores to supply boots, shoes and dry goods at cost. Mr. Krupp has established schools and a reading-room, and will build a theatre. The workmen are attached to the proprietor because he gives extra pay for skilled work, gratuities at the end of the year if they have been temperate and faithful, and by his sympathy with them. Workmen, when sick, get half

wages, and are cared for in the hospitals without cost. To a sick, burial and pension fund the firm gives half as much as the men. Last year the receipts were $80,000. By paying 72 cents annually each person receives medical treatment free. The firm has organized a chemical laboratory, a photographic and lithographic atalier, as well as printing and book-binding establishment. In the printing office there are two steam and four hand-presses in operation. Men work eleven hours a day. The smelting works, with eleven blast furnaces, produce nearly 10,000 tons of pig iron per month.

Sir Francis Crossley, at Halifax, Yorkshire, England, has provided "The People's Park," covering over 13 acres, furnished it with several statues, the whole costing $160,000, leaving $30,000 for gardening, repairs, etc. He also built and endowed twenty-two alms-houses, and left $50,000 to be lent to various young or needy tradesmen for a period of years without interest.

Sir Joseph Whitworth, to encourage young men with a mechanical turn of mind, gives to three colleges, $500 for four years in scholarships to boys not under sixteen nor over eighteen, who shall be examined in the common branches, and in two of the following handicrafts: fitting, turning, smith's work, pattern-making and moulding.

In the Royal Dockyards of Great Britain where more than 16,000 men are employed, they become entitled to pensions after ten years' service. On attaining the age of sixty they are retired. Strikes are said to be unknown in the dockyards.

James Smieton & Sons, near Dundee, employ about 500 persons in weaving, etc. They pay the expenses of evening classes, have an elegant hall accommodating 600, where a piano and harmonium are kept, which is used for a school-room during the day, and for lectures and the like in the evening. A librarian is paid by the firm to manage a good library. Bagatelle, chess and checker-boards are furnished, and good cottages have been built and are let at lower terms than is possible in the surrounding town.

Saltaire is a most interesting place to visit. The mills, warehouses, etc., in the worsted trade cover 9¾ acres. Sir Titus Salt began life very poor, but by energy, temperance and inventions, came to success. He has built this town of 4,000 persons solely for his workmen. The houses are stone, two stories high, with all the modern appliances. Each has a flower bed in front. The bath and wash-houses have baths of every description. He built a large, handsome hall, used as a library, museum, and for class-rooms. The almshouses consist of forty-five buildings like Italian villas, and are for those who, by

reason of age or infirmity, are unable to support themselves. Each married person receives $2.50 per week, and each single person $1.87. The schools are among the best in England. A beautiful church, erected at his expense, was built in 1859. An infirmary is provided for accidents, and a dispensary. A park covering fourteen acres, provides boating, cricket, and pleasant walks. No saloon is allowed in the town.

We visited with great interest many workshops abroad, always finding where most was done for the employed there most was also done for the employer. In the large engineering works of Messrs. Tangye, in Birmingham, with 2,000 men, lectures are given twice a week during the dinner hours on political or general subjects, the men often suggesting the topics. Evening classes are held, a library provided, and a visitor for the sick. Breakfast and dinners are furnished, the latter costing from twelve to sixteen cents. It is a comfort to see the men eating this rather than a cold dinner from a tin pail. Perry & Co., pen-makers, have a dining hall, with complete kitchen apparatus. They loaned the committee having it in charge sufficient money to purchase food at the start. The firm also fitted up a theatre and purchased a lantern for dissolving views. Several firms have bought brass instruments for the bands organized among the men.

Cadbury Brothers, in their large cocoa works, covering three acres, employ over five hundred persons. Especial attention is paid to ventilation and proper light. A cricket and foot-ball ground is provided for the men, and a playground, with swings, etc., for the women and girls. Large dining rooms are furnished for both sexes, where they can warm or cook their dinners over gas stoves; eighty chops can be cooked in ten minutes. From 9:15 to 9:30 every morning, the work-people meet for religous service. The wife of the leading minister of Birmingham gives most interesting health lectures to the wives of workingmen. Three firms in Manchester have institutes attached to their works. Others every pay-day give each of their three or four thousand men a paper or magazine. Penny biographies and histories are scattered widely. Rev. H. R. Haweis, the well-known author, has been an ardent promoter of this. The man who works ten or twelve hours a day has no time for two-volume novels or six-volume histories. The man or woman with leisure owes it to humanity that he or she use it for those who are obliged to toil.

At the Dry Soap Works of Hudson & Co., in Liverpool and London, cocoa rooms are provided, where cocoa or tea are served at a cent a cup, a bun at the

same price, with jam, meat, etc., at low rates. The profits made on the refreshments are distributed by a committee of the work people as they see fit. At the end of these rooms there is a stage for concerts, private theatricals, or bowling. A piano is also furnished. De La Rue & Co., printers and lithographers, some thirty years ago organized a Factory Tea Society, to give tea with the evening meal at 5 o'clock daily, with tea and sugar to be taken home on Friday evenings. These being purchased at wholesale, were sold to the workmen at a fair profit, and the money put aside for their provident fund. Last year the profits were $2,500. More than 27,000 gallons of tea were sent in hot cans to the workmen. They pay weekly at the rate of two cents a pint. The fund is used in sickness or death.

The Massachusetts Labor Bureau investigated the condition of some of the homes of the work people of that State, and found, out of 393 tenements examined, 288 were good, while 105 ranged from fair to very bad. There is need of a

LABOR BUREAU

in every State to investigate wages, tenements, pauperism, children in factories, hours of work, etc.

In 1880, the Bureau reported that in three cities the manufacturers take their employees on excursions occasionally, free of expense. In Salem, the horse railroad company gives the entire receipts of one day's travel to the workmen, in addition to their wages.

The Pacific Mills, at Lawrence, Mass., have a library of 7,000 volumes, and all the leading magazines of the country. The operatives give one cent a week toward these privileges.

The Labor Bureau well says: "There is no true and lasting prosperity where the bulk of the population has but little share of the advantages of civilization." It becomes, then, the duty of all to disseminate knowledge.

The Passaic Rolling Mill Company, of Paterson, N. J., of which Alderman Watts Cooke is president, has fitted up rooms at a cost of about $4,000, on the mill premises, for the accommodation of a literary association of the 400 employees, the same to be kept open, lighted, warmed and cared for by a janitor, all at the expense of the company. If circumstances seem to warrant it, the company propose to establish and carry on a technical school for the instruction of would-be mechanics.

PROFIT-SHARING WITH EMPLOYEES.

A little while ago we visited the large publishing house of Cassell, Petter & Galpin, London. Nearly a thousand men were busy at the presses or preparing wood-cuts, giving to the people the great need of the age, cheap yet good literature. All worked with enthusiasm. What was the secret of it? Was it because they received fair wages. Not that alone. Was it because they were treated with the courtesy due from one man to another, be he hod-carrier or millionaire? Not that only. They were sharers in the profits of the firm. Every book printed was their book. Every hour wasted was their loss. Of the capital, $200,000 is held by about 300 employees, who have been able to buy stock. Two hundred and seventy-two others, each by the payment of twenty-five cents weekly, in three years and a half become partners. Those unable to save even this, if their salary be less than $1,500, after five years of service are helped to partnership by the Provident Society, established for old or disabled employees.

"Profit-sharing" of employees with the employed is gaining ground abroad. Professor Sedley Taylor, late fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, who has written much and ably on this subject, has given a detailed account of several of the more than one hundred firms already using this method in Europe.

The Paris and Orleans Railway Company, with 15,743 employees, has practiced profit-sharing for forty years. The entire sum allotted the men over and above market wages during this time has been $11,000,000. Formerly a bonus was paid in cash—now it is compulsorily invested for a retiring life pension, when the employee is fifty years old. Messrs. Chaix & Co., publishers, give 15 per cent. of the net profits to their workmen. The amount distributed in ten years has been $125,000. One-third is given in money, one-third to their Provident Society, and the remaining third is received after twenty years of labor. A single incident will show the interest manifested after profit-sharing was introduced. Two workmen setting type had each a lamp. They at once moved their frames together, and blew out one light to save expense for the firm of which they were now a part. The proprietor has also organized a school for his apprentices, where history, book-keeping, drawing, chemistry, etc., are taught. The pupils are promised two cents for each attendance, and at the end of the month receive this for spending money.

The Company of General Insurances has for thirty years divided five per cent. of its profits among its employees, in proportion to their individual salaries. This is accumulated at 4 per cent. compound interest, until the workman has

been twenty-five years in their employ. The sum assigned has been nearly $1,000,000.

I was interested in the immense Bon Marche, after seeing the rooms where the 2,300 clerks take their meals, and where many of them sleep, to learn Madame Boucicaut's plan. Her husband and son having died, she is the responsible head. Of the $4,000,000 capital, she holds $2,500,000, while the employees hold $1,500,000. After five years of labor in her house, all share in the profits, the sum being fixed annually by herself. This is put at 4 per cent., compound interest, till the men have worked twenty years and the women fifteen. The labor-share since the adoption of this system, seven years ago, has reached nearly $100,000.

In 1878, a company was formed in Paris, to study profit-sharing, and report its progress. The annual bulletins can be obtained from our National Bureau of Education. The Maison Leclaire, with its thousand workmen, is well known. The founder, the son of a poor village shoemaker, coming penniless, at seventeen, to Paris, apprenticed to a hard master, determined in after years to aid those who worked for him. During the first fifteen years of his business they subscribed monthly to a Mutual Aid Society. This fund was then taken into partnership. The profits are given, after taking out five per cent. interest on capital, one-fourth to the two managing partners, one-fourth to the aid society, and half in money to the workmen. The day before his death in 1872, Leclaire wrote his partner: "Until sound learning shall have replaced ignorance amongst the masses, until the disinherited shall have strength to raise themselves to us, we must hold out a hand to them. Otherwise the rooted antagonism between the suffering classes and the more fortunate will never cease." He said: "It is better for me to earn 100 francs and give 50 to my workmen, than to earn only 25 and keep them all myself."

M. Bord, in his piano manufactory, has for twenty years, after deducting ten per cent. on the capital invested, divided the profits proportionately with the workmen; one part to the interest already allotted, the other according to the wages paid. Their share has been already over $240,000. The paper mills at Angouleme, with 1,500 workmen, have a somewhat similar plan.

At the manufactory of music boxes at St. Jean, near Geneva, Switzerland, profit-sharing has been employed since 1871 on the following basis: After deducting six per cent. on capital and a fixed payment to the reserve and maintenance funds, the net profits are divided equally between capital and labor. Of the labor-share one-half is in money and the other half goes toward the purchase of $20 shares in the company, which carry with them votes at the

general meeting. For five years, twenty-one per cent. on wages was allotted to labor, and then came a period of depression, when there were no profits to divide. The proprietors wrote to Professor Bohmert, of Dresden, who has published the most important work on profit-sharing ever written:

"After ten years of experience we congratulate ourselves more and more on having adopted it. Its application has to such a degree become ingrained into our modes of doing business that we should not know how to get on without it; the management of an undertaking appears to us no longer possible without this element of justice, harmony and peace.

"Every workman who has become a share-holder and joint proprietor with his employers, devotes his utmost attention to the success of the undertaking. The workman, having the same interest as his employers, and perceiving that he is no longer treated like a machine, works with energy and courage."

Says Professor Bohmert: "Most of the judgments pronounced against participation in profits emanate from men in business who have neither tried the system at all, or else only to an inadequate extent or for too short a time. On the other hand, it is precisely from those employers who have most thoroughly developed the system that we receive decidedly favorable judgments and experiences."

The Messrs. Briggs & Co., at Yorkshire, England, tried the experiment of profit-sharing for ten years. Before it was adopted, the feeling was such toward the proprietor, that he usually took his wife with him to save open hostilities. Afterward all was changed. In ten years $190,000 were given to the men as profits above wages. At the end of this time a reduction of wages led to a strike, which spoiled the plan, but while it was in operation, the firm was never so peaceful and prosperous.

In New York, the Brewsters, carriage manufacturers, for some years divided among their workmen ten per cent. of the net profits, and it was only discontinued when a demand for reduction of working hours being refused, a strike resulted. They still believe in a similar plan, and will doubtless re-adopt it.

Pillsbury, at his famous mills in Minneapolis, Minn., on the occasion of putting up his millionth barrel of flour, distributed $25,000 to his heads of departments. Probably when he reaches the second million he will divide a like sum among his workmen.

In all these cases the workingman receives his daily wages at market price. If no profits are made he receives no share, but with his employer feels the general disappointment and loss arising from the increased exertion with the hope of profit.

THE RESULTS FROM PROFIT-SHARING

Have been excellent. Workmen have become encouraged to save, to do more and better work, to be sober and self-respecting, and to avoid strikes as detrimental to their own welfare. They are no longer eye-servants, but responsible co-workers. Ambition is aroused, and they desire homes of their own. Francis A. Walker says:

"Many experiments and probably much disappointment and some failures will be required to develop the possibilities of this scheme and determine its best working shape, yet in the end, I see no reason to doubt that such a relation will be introduced extensively with the most beneficial results."

Postmaster General Fawcett, in "Pauperism: its Causes and Remedies," page 165, says:

"The public press often tells us how some iron-master or some manufacturer has become a millionaire, but not a word is said about any advance in the condition of those without whose labor such vast wealth could not be accumulated. All experience shows that there can be no hope of introducing more harmonious relations unless employers and employed are both made to feel that they have an immediate and direct interest in the success of the work in which they are engaged."

A letter received from one of England's largest manufacturers has these words: "I think when the time comes for co-operative production, it will solve many questions and destroy large manufacturing monopolies, raise the laboring slave to an independent and regenerating position in his own and our opinion. I am sure there is a strong feeling, in the mind at least of the intelligent employer of labor, that he owes his work people something."

The well known author, Rev. Washington Gladden, in his book, "Working People and their Employers," writes: "Transition from the wages system to the system of co-operation is likely to be made through the introduction of what are called industrial partnerships, by which the work-people in a manufacturing establishment are given an interest in the business; and in addition to their wages a stipulated portion of the profits is divided among them at the close of each year, in proportion to the amount of their earnings. It would seem that the times are fully ripe for the adoption of this principle. I have no doubt that many of our manufacturers would find it greatly to their advantage to introduce it; that it would result in securing steadier workmen and better work, and that it would put an end to strikes and all other forms of strife."

It is often objected to profit-sharing, that when fair wages are paid a man is not entitled to anything further. While it is an open question what are "fair wages" for a man or woman with a family to support, it is quite true that if a man gives better service where he has extra inducement, the employer is none the loser. Capital is quite as dependent on labor as labor is on capital, and whatever tends to oneness of interest, tends to peace and prosperity in business.

Again it is said that if there are losses, the workingman will be unwilling to share them. He does really share them, when he gives additional labor with the expectation of profit, and then receives none.

Some employers say all this is "too much trouble." Nothing is too much trouble that helps human beings upward. A man who is encouraged to provide a home for his family, to dress neatly and educate his children, by a trifling interest in business, is made so much the better member of society. The employer who pays starvation wages, corrupts society, and is making the country an unsafe abode for his children's children.

Another objection is made that it will destroy the privacy of business if the profits of a firm are known.

This might be the case in exceptional instances, but as a rule the true condition of business is not long hidden. A1 is not written against a man's name without some knowledge.

HOW LABOR CAN HELP ITSELF.

1. By Education. The workingman has become an important factor in our civilization. Through his increasingly strong labor organizations men will be sent to Congress to represent his interests. Power will not be wanting, but the wisdom of the legislation thus effected, with regard to monopolies, taxes on land, eight-hour system, etc., will depend largely on the education of the constituents. John Stuart Mill said of education as a remedy for the ills of the working people: "It is indeed not the principal, but the sole remedy, if understood in its widest sense."

Said Jules Ferry, recently: "Labor and schools—that is the law of the future. It is by these that the great American democracy is daily taking gigantic strides toward the almost incalculable greatness of its destinies." France herself is nobly doing her part. There are more than 100 art classes for adults in Paris alone, all numerously attended, and chiefly by workingmen. There are also free courses of elementary and advanced lectures in every branch of literature, art, and science, including modern languages, biology and mathematics, given by men of national reputation, composed mostly of workingmen. Especially

does one see this at the College de France and Conservatoire des Arts et Metiers. Similar courses are given in all the chief towns. This is a feature America might well copy for her adult population. Where is our South Kensington Museum, with its science and art schools all over the United Kingdom, with evening classes for artisans at seventy-five cents a month?

London has three large colleges for workingmen and women. The first was organized 25 years ago by Rev. Frederic Denison Maurice, the beloved friend of Dean Stanley, Tennyson and Charles Kingsley. Ruskin, the greatest art critic of the age, gave five years to teaching art to working people, and he has established, near his home in Sheffield, a museum solely for them, to which he gives a tenth of his income. So thoroughly and rightly does he believe that people who work with their hands are able to appreciate beautiful things, that one of his illustrated books for their use cost $500.

England has already realized that a country whose workers are uneducated has no true foundation for good citizenship. How shall men or women be able to live nobly for a land unless they know its history and can be proud of its greatness?

As soon as the college was built by Mr. Maurice and others, scholars flocked eagerly to it: blacksmiths, bricklayers, carpenters, gas-fitters, day-laborers. The first year there were 380 students; now there are 800. Would these mechanics study French? Yes. 137 are studying it. Surely they would not desire Latin and Greek? Fifty are studying these. There are 45 studying physiology, 25 political economy, 50 short-hand, 27 philosophy, 28 mechanics, 31 electricity, 85 art, 15 German, 27 geology, etc. The Latin Professor says these men "do an astonishing amount of work" in Tacitus, Cicero and Virgil, while they know little of English Grammar, from having been too poor to go to school. Who was right in saying that these young men would rather lounge about street corners or in saloons, than study?

Weekly free lectures are given by such men as Huxley, Tyndall, and William Morris, author of the Earthly Paradise. The teaching is all voluntary, save in Latin, Greek and French, and is usually given by men from the Universities. The classes for reading, writing and arithmetic meet four nights a week, the fee being $1.00 for a term. For Greek and Latin, each, it is only 25 cents a term. Thomas Hughes, M. P., author of School Days at Rugby, is the President.

Another College for Workingmen, and Women as well, with 500 students, has Rev. Stopford A. Brooke for its President. I said to the person in charge,

seeing that some of the teachers were women: "It has been urged that men do not like to be taught by women, and fear their incapacity." The reply was: "The prejudice in favor of men teaching the classics has given way before the demonstration of woman's fitness. One of our most successful Greek classes is taught by a lady—a Cambridge graduate. To take a degree at the University, a student most pass a six day's examination of six hours each, putting English verse into Greek and Latin, and *vice versa*. When either a man or woman passes this test, they can teach most persons." "How does co-education work?" I asked, remembering the great fear of some of our older colleges if young women are admitted.

"The teachers, as a rule, greatly prefer mixed classes as being more full of life and interest. There is a healthful stimulus in scholarship between the two sexes, which is as strengthening to the young women as it is refreshing and refining to the young men."

I cannot help thinking that Prof. Peabody, of Harvard College, was right when he said that he saw no more harm in a young man and woman looking over the same book together, than embracing each other in a waltz!

The "Workingman's Club and Institute Union" is an association of 550 clubs for mutual improvement by lectures and libraries and for recreation. Mr. Hodgson Pratt is its leading spirit. Only recently 1,000 of its 75,000 members were entertained at the South Kensington Museum by the president and his wife, Sir Thomas and Lady Brassey. How different the position of the intelligent workingman of to-day from that of the Helots of Sparta, put to death at will, or the Roman peasant, sold like the ox, with the land on which he labored.

Dr. Birkbeck formed, in 1827, a Mechanic's Institute in London, assisted by Lord Brougham. This has been the parent of 1000 other similar institutions.

There are many Workingmen's Clubs in this country. The Roxbury, Mass., Young Men's Free Union has over 400 members, with Mr. Edmond T. Dooley as efficient Superintendent. On two evenings of each month "plain talks" are given on the principles of our Government, or other practical subject. There is also a large club at 1,125 Washington street, Boston. Miss Jennie Collins, at 1,031 Washington street, Boston, in Boffin's Bower, is doing a noble work for working girls. Free dinners are given to all worthy ones who apply. She furnishes literary and musical entertainments, a free reading room and an employment bureau, all without charge, the money needed being raised by an annual fair.

St. Mark's Club, Philadelphia, has a large membership; as also one in Germantown. Hon. Carroll D. Wright, of Boston, the able head of the Labor Bureau, well says, in urging the formation of such clubs for improvement: "There is no true or lasting prosperity for a nation where the bulk of the population has but little share of the advantages of civilization."

Common School Education would be a blessing if for no other reason than that it increases the income of the laborer from twenty to fifty per cent. (Report of Bureau of Education, 1870.)

LABOR CAN HELP ITSELF.

2. By arbitration instead of strikes. There are, of course, two sides to a question. Capital is often arrogant, grasping, and lacking in consideration. Labor is often careless, indifferent and untrue. There are wrongs to be righted, but it must be done through the press and the ballot-box. If an increase of wages is desired, or a reduction of time, there is always a *best* way of accomplishing it. The British Iron Trades Association in 1878 reported 277 strikes, of which only four were successful, and seventeen were settled by compromise. The Massachusettes Labor Bureau in 1880 made a full report of strikes in that State. In Fall River alone the enormous sum of $1,400,000 in wages were lost by the idleness of the operators. Out of 159 strikes 109 were unsuccessful, 18 succeeded, and 16 compromised.

Since 1860 industrial conciliation and arbitration have done great good in England. Before this time in the hosiery trade at Nottingham, there was constant war between employers and employed. Through Mr. Mundella, M.P., a manufacturer, himself coming from the working men's ranks, a Board of Arbitration was established. It was composed equally of employers and workmen, both chosen annually by their respective bodies; the chairman elected by the meeting, but to have no vote. All sit around a table, each side having its secretary. If a dispute arises, the secretaries settle it if possible. If not, it is referred to a Committee of Inquiry, composed of four members of the Board, who refer it to the whole, if they cannot settle it satisfactorily. Strikes have thus been avoided in Nottingham.

In the extensive iron trade at Darlington, with 35 iron works and 13,000 workmen, in 1875, the standing committees settled more than forty disputes. Since 1869 several wages' disputes have been settled by the Board of Arbitration, and strikes do not now occur.

One of the most successful Boards in this country is that of Straiton & Storm, cigar manufacturers, New York City. The Board was formed in 1879 for the reason they say "that strikes are injurious to both employer and employee; that they end in failures, and that by reason of them an abundant quantity of unemployed labor of all other kinds has been drawn into our branch of industry." Their Board consists of nine persons, of whom five, or a majority, are workmen.

The Voluntary Trade Tribunal Bill, ably advocated by Senator W. A. Wallace, passed the Pennsylvania Senate last year. This is to adjust disputes between employers and employed.

France is much ahead of us in this matter. In 1806 at Lyons, in the silk trade there were established "Councils of Wise Men." In 1874 there were 112 such Councils in that country, to whom about 45,000 cases of dispute are brought annually, over sixty per cent. of these being about wages.

Prof. Fawcett well says: "The first essential to success in any effort for the prevention of disputes, is the possession of a conciliatory spirit and a ready disposition to consider the rights and interests of both sides." We shall come eventually to believe with the lamented President Chadbourne, "The rule now commonly acted upon is that business must be cared for and men must care for themselves. The principle of action, in the end, must be that *men must be cared for*, and business must be subservient to this great work."

3. By avoiding waste. Workingmen are often their own worst enemies, in the use of drink. It is stated by Prof. Leone Levi, of England, himself not an opponent of the liquor traffic, that the "working-classes spend nearly $180,000,000 on the various intoxicants, *exactly the sum which they spend in rent.*"

In this country we spend for drink, six times as much as for education both public and private. We drink up the value of all our libraries, both public and private, in two months! We give to home and foreign missions $5,000,000, our drink bill for three days! In Ohio alone we drink up 25,000 homes, worth $2,000 each! Who could believe that sane men, with wife and children depending upon them for support, could let them live in poverty, for their own selfish gratification. When a man can be so noble, how strange that he is willing to be so ignoble!

This is the best country on earth to effect the solution of all labor problems. Men and women must learn to think for themselves, and not be led by unscrupulous persons. Compulsory education, wide reading and high moral character,

will fit men to stand by their own best manhood. Emerson well says: "The man who stands by himself, the world will stand by him also." We may well copy the life-principle of Whittier: "It is always safe to do right, and the truest expediency is simple justice;" words worthy to be floated on any banner under the sun. Joseph Cook says: "You never can bridge the chasm between labor and capital here by a kid glove. You never can bridge it with the bayonet. In the old world it has been bridged by the bayonet on the continent, and by the kid glove in England; but in New England the only bridge that will close that chasm is popular, scientific, aggressive deadly Christianity, laid on the buttresses of the Sabbath and the common schools."

The workingman must never let his rest-day be taken from him, nor his grand advantages in the public schools. He must be very slow about voting away the working man's only college for his children, the High School. America is emphatically the country where it is a shame not to labor. The idler, whether man or woman, has no social standing, and ought to have none. I said to a young American in Paris: "What will you do in life, when you return?" "If I were to stay in Paris, I would live on my money and take life easy; but in Massachusetts, I must do something to be respected." All honor to a country built on labor and education.

The prizes of life are very generally obtained by the children of the poor, for their energy and industry. Peter Cooper could work five years in a carriage shop, earning $25 a year, hiring a teacher evenings, by a little money from outside jobs, and by and by use $2,000,000 in his Cooper Institute for 4,000 scholars in his night schools. Johns Hopkins was a farmer boy, then a clerk in a grocery store, and left $7,000,000 to the University and Hospital which bear his name in Baltimore. Henry M. Stanley, the greatest explorer of modern times, who has traveled 7,000 miles in the heart of Africa, lived ten years, in his boyhood, in a Welsh poor-house. Abraham Lincoln could do his early reading by the light of a pine knot, and Elihu Burritt learn twenty languages while at the blacksmith's forge.

"The heights by great men reached and kept,
Were not attained by sudden flight,
But they, while their companions slept,
Were toiling upward in the night."—*Longfellow.*

NUMBER FOUR.

Mysteries of the Sea.

They that go down to the Sea in ships, that do business in great waters: these see the works of the Lord, and His wonders in the deep.—PSALMS.

Whosoever commands the Sea commands the trade; whosoever commands the trade of the world commands the riches of the world, and consequently the world itself.—SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

EDITED BY
CHARLES E. BOLTON.

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SATURDAY EVENING, - - - - - - DECEMBER 15, 1883.

FOURTH ENTERTAINMENT.

MUSICAL PRELUDE, from 6:40 to 7:15. BY THE EDUCATIONAL BUREAU ORCHESTRA.
C. KUPPE, Director. - - - - - - J. M. LELAND, Leader.

PROGRAMME.

1. March—Fahnen Weihe...M. Carl. 2. Overture—Struensee.....Mueller.
3. Waltz—The Little Imps..Ross. 4. Apollonia Concert Rheinlander ..E. Paudert.
5. Galop—Rapid Transit.....R. Manners.

THE MARSEILLAISE HYMN, - - - - - - - - - BY THE AUDIENCE.

Ye sons of Freedom 'wake to glory,
Hark, hark, what myriads bid you rise?
Your children, wives and grandsires hoary;
Behold their tears and hear their cries;
Behold their tears and hear their cries;
Shall hatcful tyran:s, mischief breeding,
With hireling hosts, a ruffian band,
Affright and desolate the land,
While peace and liberty lie bleeding.—CHO.

O Liberty! can man resign thee?
Once having felt thy generous flame,
Can dungeons' bolts and bars confine thee!
Or whips thy noble spirit tame?
Or whips thy noble spirit tame?
Too long the world has wept, bewailing,
That falsehood's dagger tyrants yield;
But freedom is our Sword and Shield,
And all their arts are unavailing.—CHO.

CHORUS—To arms, to arms ye brave! Th' avenging sword unsheath?
March on! March on! All hearts resolved on Victory or death.

LECTURE PRELUDE, from 7:15 to 7:45, - - - - - - DR. C. F. DUTTON.
SUBJECT: "Sewerage and Ventilation." (Illustrated.)

SINGING SCHOOL, 7:45 to 8:00, - - Conducted by PROF. N. COE STEWART.
☞ Audience please stand first five minutes. ☜

PRESIDING OFFICER. - - - - - - - - - REV. D. H. MULLER, D.D.

LECTURE, 8:00 to 9:30, - - - - - - - BY JOHN B. GOUGH, ESQ
SUBJECT: "The Powers That Be."

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SPECIAL NOTICES.—Fifth Entertainment, Saturday Evening, December 22nd, PROF. W. C. RICHARDS. SUBJECT: "The Fairy Land of Nature." (Brilliantly Illustrated.)

☞ Genuine Holiday Fun for the Children of Cleveland.—Wide-awake Holiday Travels through Europe, with Mr. C. E Bolton. 325 Beautiful Illustrations. Four Matinees for the Children at the People's Tabernacle, at 2:30 P.M. Monday, Dec. 24, "The British Isles of To-Day." Wednesday, Dec. 26, "From the Polar Sea to Paris" Thursday, Dec. 27, "Over the Alps to Rome." Monday, Dec. 31, "Through Germany and Russia to Constantinople." Life-Like Views, Flags from Paris, Germania Orchestra. Admission to Four Entertainments, **25** Cents. Tickets for Sale by all Public School Teachers, at Public Library, Book Stores, and by the Ushers this evening. Raise your hands and Ushess will come.

WHAT to expect at a hotel—inn-attention.

PUT not your trust in money, but put your money in trust.

BEER fills many a bottle, and the bottle fills many a bier.

A WISE man will make more opportunities than he finds.—*Lord Bacon.*

IT is exceedingly bad husbandry for a man to harrow up the feelings of his wife.

UNDER the whole heaven there is nothing difficult. It is only that men's minds are not determined.—*Chinese Proverb.*

ELEGANT lady to a caller: "I expect to be very happy now and ride out every day, for my husband has just bought me a new coop" (coupe.)

"MR. SMITH," said a lady at a fair, "won't you please buy this bouquet to present to the lady you love?" "It would not be right," replied Mr. Smith, "I am a married man."

"A REPUTASHUN," says Josh Billings, "once broken, may possibly be repaired, but the world will alwus keep their eyes on the spot where the krack was."

"DON'T jerk the strap that way, it rings the bell at both ends of the car," said the angry conductor to a Dutchman, excited because the horses didn't stop. "I rings him dat vay, because I vants him to stop at both ends."

A FATHER whose sensitive son had disobeyed him, talked the matter over kindly with his child and then said to him: "Now you act as Papa, and I will be the boy; what will you do with him?" The son's lips trembled, as he replied: "Believe I would try him again."

FOUR persons sat at table, an officer, a criminal with his hands pinioned, a minister and a stranger. The sympathies of the latter were excited as the culprit tried to drink his coffee.

"Do you know his crime?" he whispered to the minister.

"I have heard that it was bigamy."

"Dreadful! dreadful!" was the reply, with a somewhat blank look.

Soon he said again: "What did you say he was arrested for?"

"Bigamy."

"Ah, what awful things people will do!"

After a pause: "Mister, do you suppose the prisoner is married or single?'

Of the other writers of his age one must not forget Richard Hooker; Robert Burton, who while afflicted with despondency wrote "The Anatomy of Melancholie," a wonderfully interesting medley of quotations and anecdotes; John Donne, head of the Fantastic School, and John Lilly, a poet and dramatist; George Chapman, who made a good translation of Homer; Roger Ascham, tutor to Elizabeth and Lady Jane Grey, who wrote "The Schoolmaster," first work on *Education* in England.

DRAMA.

The Drama, as in Greece, began in religion, as we have seen in the *Miracle Plays*. The first performers were clergymen. Then "Moral Plays," in which the characters were the vices and virtues; the dramatic fool was a personage called "The Vice," like the clown in our Circus. The Devil was at once humorous and awe-inspiring. Next came the regular *Drama*.

An Interlude was a short funny piece acted in the midst of the morality to wake up the audience. John Heywood took the Interlude out of the morality and so created the *Farce* and out of this grew English *Comedy*.

First English Comedy, Ralph Roister Doister, earliest picture also of London manners. First English Tragedy Gorboduc. First theatre Blackfriars, 1576. Boys acted female parts. The Elizabethan Dramatists before Shakespeare were "Kit Marlowe," a genius who if he had lived would have been a dangerous rival to Shakespeare. "Faustus," his most famous play. He was strong, original, coarse.

Other dramatists were Greene, Peele, Nash, and Munday. Shakespeare's contemporaries among the dramatists were Ben Jonson 1574–1637 a Poet Laureate, of whom Homer said, "He possessed all the learning that was wanting to Shakespeare and wanted all the genius which the other possessed." E. P. Whipple says "Ben seemed built up mentally, as well as physically out of beef and sack, mutton and canary, the joint product of the English mind and the English larder, of the fat and thought of the land; of the soil as well as the soul of England."

Compared with Shakespeare his characters are mechanical lay figures pulled by wires and speaking from without, yet he had real power. Each character is mastered by a special bias, called a *Humor*. His best play is "Every Man in His Humor."

His *Masques* must be mentioned, and masque has a little allegory, made for some special and festive occasion and referring to the people who were to be present.

Other contemporaries were John Marston the Swift of that Period. Thomas Dekker, comic and unromantic, Beaumont and Fletcher, literary partners, brothers in heart and work. They produced fifty-two plays. Fletcher the superior; John Webster, a sombre genius; John Ford, ditto; Philip Massinger, less original force than the others; James Shirley. The Elizabethan Sonneteers were Sidney, Vaughan, Constable, Lodge, Watson, Drayton and Shakespeare. (The sonnet was invented by Petrarch.)

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE.

"Shakespeare, 1564–1616, says Macaulay, "had neither equal nor second.' He is the chief glory of English Literature. He was born at Stratford-on-Avon in Warwickshire. All the regular education he received was at the grammar school there. Yet he seems wise and learned on almost all subjects. At eighteen he married Anne Hathaway. He went to London 1586, retouched old plays, became an actor in inferior parts, became in time part owner of two theatres, retired to Stratford 1612.

His works were underrated and neglected for some time. He wrote 14 comedies, 6 tragedies, 17 Historical Plays, two romantic Poems and 154 sonnets. He borrowed and used whole plays. None of his plots are his own, but he borrowed common-place material and made it immortal. In studying Shakespeare, first read the plays; make yourselves familiar with plot and characters; tell the story in your own words. After that see what the commentators can do for you.

In what does Shakespeare differ and tower above all other poets? 1. His own personality is sunk in his creations. 2. His characters are real flesh and blood and are wonderful in number and variety. 3. His characters always preserve their individuality. 4. He is perfectly true to nature. 5. He lays nearly every known quarter of the globe under contribution, and almost every time. The themes of his Sonnets are friendship and love. It is not known to whom they are addressed; much study has been foolishly spent on this vexed question. Stick to his plays if you want him at his best.

Mrs. Cowden Clark, who has made a Concordance to Shakespeare says truly: "A poor lad, possessing no other book but Shakespeare's Plays might on this single one make himself a gentleman and a scholar; a poor girl, studying no other volume, might become a lady in heart and soul." There have been foolish doubts of his identity by a few eccentric scholars, as Delia Bacon, Judge Holmes, Mrs. Potts, but no one is convinced of this absurd theory but the few who write it up, and who bring themselves to believe that Bacon was ashamed to be known as a writer of plays. Compare the few specimens of Bacon's doggerel with Shakespeare's immortal verse, if you have a taint of this mania.

Bacon, 1561–1626, Philosopher, Jurist, Scientist, was the Founder of the system of experimental philosophy and has honor enough of his own.

> "The world to Bacon does not only owe
> Its present knowledge, but its future too,"

Says Dryden. He "emancipated" philosophy. He urged that belief should rest scrictly on *proof*, and proof rest on the conclusions drawn from evidence by reason.

His father, Sir Nicholas Bacon, was Lord-keeper of the Great Seal under Elizabeth. His mother was Anne Cook, a lady "exquisitely skilled in the Latin and Greek tongues." He was a precocious boy, left Trinity College before he was sixteen, disgusted with the teaching there. He especially disliked the logic of Aristotle, and believed it better to find facts enough to establish a general principle than to get up the principle or theory and then find facts to match.

He won renown as lawyer and statesman, rising to be Lord Chancellor, 1618. But discovered in accepting bribes he was fined, imprisoned, banished from Court. The last five years of his life were devoted entirely to literary work. The "Novum Organum" is his great work but his Essays are better suited to our comprehension. He wrote of fame, studies, atheism, beauty, ambition, death, empire, etc., in a condensed, vigorous manner. These essays were said in his day to be like the new half-pence; small, but good silver and Dugald Stewart said "they can be read in a few hours, yet you find something new or wise at the twentieth reading."

He had great faults. Pope called him the wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind. The death of Bacon properly marks the close of the Elizabethan era of Literature.

JOHN MILTON.

Several writers must be mentioned before Milton, as Cowley, 1618--1669, the most popular poet of his age. Herbert and Quarles, two quaint hymn writers and a group of Cavalier poets, Waller, Carew, Suckling, Lovelace and Herrick. Herrick's Poems have lately been revived and beautifully illustrated by Abbey. All these poets wrote of ladies and love in a dainty, often an affected manner.

Isaak Walton, 1593–1683, is still beloved by anglers. His fishing rod is still a sceptre, and his writings are still full of his personal magnetism. He wrote "The Complete Angler," and the "Lives" of several clergymen, as Herbert, Donne, and Hooker.

Charles Lamb says, "Milton almost requires a solemn service to be played before you enter upon him."

On account of his spiritual nobility and genius he stands apart from his contemporaries. His intellectual range was great; in scholarship and in prose he was one of the chief men of his time; he took high rank in dramatic literature by his masque "Comus," and tragedy "Samson Agonistes;" in the ode, elegy, and sonnet he is unsurpassed; he is the greatest epic poet that literature has had since Dante. His prose is historical and controversial and he was often rude and insulting in his verbal blows, as men deep in earnest are apt to be. He overtaxed his eyes in preparing his "Defence of the English People," and became wholly blind. In religion he was a Unitarian, in politics a puritan and reformer—the Champion of English Liberty. In home life I fear he was unreasonable and overbearing. After he became blind, he compelled his two youngest daughters to read all books of whatever language he saw fit to peruse, they knowing how to pronounce the words only, an intolerable task. The oldest daughter was excused because she stuttered. They did not love him because he was stern and selfish.

His intellect predominated over his imagination. As a thinker he stands next to Shakespeare and Bacon.

His early poems as L'Allegro and Il Penseroso are beautiful and charming. "Paradise Lost," his greatest work is so grand, so far above every day life and common people that few REALLY enjoy it as a whole. It is sublime in portions, but the task which he undertook, of describing God and Heaven and the angels was too mighty. Many people pretend to revel in Milton's poetry when they have never looked at it since they studied some passage as an exercise in Grammar at school. It is best to be honest and to dare to give your opinions and a reason for them.

Few have ever read the whole epic save as a task or on a wager. The first two books are the best. As a whole it is heavy and hard reading for our times.

"Reading Milton is like dining off gold plate in a company of kings, very splendid, very ceremonious, and not a little appalling."

His dates are 1608–1674.

DRYDEN.

Next comes Dryden, 1631–1700. Called the "Father of Criticism," first in the second class of English poets. He was a Lyric and Didactic poet, a Satirist, Translator, Critic, and Dramatist, but as Macauley says: "Nature had denied to him the dramatic faculty." He wrote to please a corrupt Court, changed his politics and religion to suit the occasion. He could reason well in verse and his "Ode for St. Cecelia's Day" is considered one of the finest of all odes. He translated Virgil, modernized Chaucer, wrote fables, is regarded as

the first who used the heroic couplet with entire mastery. None of his plays will live.

He had an unhappy marriage and is said to have been guilty of this epitaph :

"Here lies my wife. Here let her lie,
Now she's at rest, *And so am I.*"

We must not forget to mention three noted clergymen, Jeremy Taylor, the quaint and witty Thomas Fuller, and the devout Richard Baxter. "Holy Living and Holy Dying," "Good Thoughts in Bad Times," and "The Saint's Everlasting Rest," are books by which these men will be best remembered.

John Bunyan also, the Bedfordshire Tinker, whose allegory "The Pilgrim's Progress," has not its equal in the language. No need to dwell on that. You all know it by heart.

There were three Literary Gossips just about this time too. John Evelyn, Samuel Pepys, and John Aubrey. They must not be overlooked or despised, for as straws show the direction of the wind, these trifling chroniclers often reproduce History that would otherwise be lost.

The Drama of the Restoration was rotten to the core. It is hardly worth while to mention the names of the vulgar fellows who dipped their pens in pollution to suit the low taste of the public. Wycherly was the worst of all and Congreve was the best.

POPE.

We come now to a most interesting period and to what is called the "Artificial School," of which *Pope*, 1688–1744, was the head. He was a crooked little invalid, a fretful, peevish sufferer, but some of the greatest men have had small and deformed bodies. His name is one of the greatest in English Literature. At twelve he was taken to Wills' Coffee House to see Dryden, the literary lion of the day, and resolved to imitate him, but he could not copy any one, he was unique. His first efforts were translations, and an "Ode on Solitude," a true poem and perfect in its way, wonderfully mature, but he did not mean a word of it, for he was always ambitious, and wanted social distinction and fame. His Essay on Criticism was finished before he was twenty-one. It is full of wise thoughts, wittily expressed in sparkling couplets. No other writer save Shakespeare, has furnished more brief quotations as,

"To err is human, to forgive divine."

He believed the "sound must be an echo to the sense," and his lines are often imitative of various things. The "Rape of the Lock" tells the story of a lock of hair, stolen from a fair maid in a brilliant mock heroic style. He gave a dozen years to translating the "Iliad" and "Odyssey" from which he gained a large sum of money which he mostly spent on his house and garden at Buckin-

ham. The "Essay on Man" abounds in pithy proverbial sayings. In the "Dunciad" he lashed his envious critics who had attacked him again and again, and because he hit back they are remembered, but not as they expected.

Pope's style is pointed, precise, polished. His life is extremely interesting but there is no room here to enlarge. He counted among his friends Matthew Prior, noted for his love-songs and ready wit, who is now known by "The Cityand Country Mouse;" Dr. Johnson who, wrote his life; John Gay, author of the Beggar's Opera and Fables; Thomas Parnell, who wrote the life of Homer, prefixed to Pope's translation; Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, who wrote delightful letters, and at one time was an intimate friend of Pope. But she laughed at him and they separated, Pope ever after pursuing her with unrelenting bitterness and hatred. Dean Swift, 1667–1745, was one of Pope's intimate friends. He is the most gloomy figure in the long picture-gallery, "the most unhappy man on earth," "an immense genius, an awful downfall, and ruin." Addison spoke of him as "the most agreeable companion, the truest friend, and the greatest genius of his age." His first Satire, "The Tale of a Tub," a hit at both Presbyterians and Papists, made his fame but lost him a Bishopric. Swift changed from Whig to Tory, and his political tracts brought him Court favor. He was the Goliath of pamphleteers in the reign of Queen Anne. Sent to Ireland as Dean, a real exile for a proud and disappointed man, he made the best of it, and was soon the most popular man in Ireland. His "Drapier Letters," opposing Woods' Monopoly of copper coinage had such an effect that the plan failed. In his great work, "Gulliver's Travels," he pictures the great men and political parties of his day. He was master of both satire and irony. Two women, "Stella" and "Vanessa" are always thought of in connection with his life. They were perhaps too susceptible. He was certainly a mystery. His last days were full of horror. Alone, insane, he lingered for nine terrible years. He has made many laugh, and his literary frivolities are most amusing. "No English is more robust than Swift's, no wit more scathing, no life in private and public more sad and proud, no death more pitiable. Dr. Edward Young, with his gloomy "Night Thoughts," must be named.

Steele, 1671–1729, was the Father of the Periodical Essay; originated this species of work in the Tatler, a little sheet devoted to short talks on current topics, the fashions and foibles of the day. The great charm of his writing is its naturalness.

Dick Steele was too fond of the bottle; that ruined him. Johnson said "Steele practices all the lighter vices," a man of good resolutions and bad practices. His letters to "Prue," his long-suffering wife, are comical in their excuses for not going home more regularly. He wrote the "Christian Hero,"

hoping to straighten his own wild life. He wrote several comedies, the best, "The Conscious Lovers."

He called Addison, 1672–1719, to his aid, who soon took the lead and made the Spectator a great success. His finest character is "Sir Roger de Coverly." His work was a great one lightly done. He gave a better tone to manners; his merriment was always pure; he has not "left a single taunt which could be called ungenerous or unkind." He was in his way a Reformer, also a lay Preacher, a popular Critic, graceful Moralist, genial Philosopher. He wrote poetry, classic prose, tragedy, hymns, humorous social essays, dialogues on medals, translation, a comedietta, and various playful bits, as epigrams, echo verses. Lady Montagu said "Addison was the best company in the world." The Augustan Age of Literature extends from 1700 to 1727, reigns of Anne and George I.

From *Essayists* let us turn to the *Novel.*

FICTION.

Defoe, 1661–1731, who wrote "Robinson Crusoe," has been called the founder of the English Novel. He had a stirring varied life; was a satirist in verse, a political pamphleteer, a commercial writer, a journalist; leaving 250 books and pamphlets, besides several "secondary novels" and a work on "Devil Lore," but he owes his immortality to Robinson Crusoe.

Richardson, 1689-1761, was the first to concentrate all the interests of human life upon the war between man and woman. He is styled the Father of Modern Prose Fiction.

His novels are Pamela, Clarissa Harlowe, and Sir Charles Grandison. He was fairly idolized by the ladies who admired his long drawn out and affected style. To day he is insufferably tedious.

Fielding, 1707–1754, saw his absurdities and wrote his first novel, Joseph Andrews, to ridicule the "prudery and over-righteousness" of Richardson. This made Richardson and his admirers angry, but Fielding carried the day. Byron calls him "the Prose Homer of human nature." "Tom Jones" and "Amelia" soon followed. His heroes are handsome captivating fellows of dissolute lives; his women are either vile or pretty puppets of circumstance. He was coarse but true to life. He depicted his age, as did Chaucer. His "Parson Adonis" is a gem.

Professor H. Reed thought Tom Jones the most admirable work of fiction ever written. Thackeray bowed reverently before Fielding as the greatest master of fiction. Gibbon declared that Tom Jones would outlive the palace of the Escurial and the Imperial Eagle of Austria; and Thackeray adds: "There can

be no gainsaying the sentence of this great judge. To have your name mentioned by Gibbon is like having it written on the dome of St. Peters."

Tobias Smollett, 1721–1771, a Scotchman, cotemporary with Fielding, was a man of multifarious employments and strange adventures, by turns reviewer, historian, critic, medical writer, poet, pamphleteer and novelist. A surgeon by profession, hack-writer by practice, his novels chiefly describe his own adventures and his low companions.

His novels are "Humphrey Clinker" (which Thackeray pronounces the most laughable story that has ever been written since the goodly art of novel-writing began,) "Roderic Random," "Peregrine Pickle." and the adventures of "Ferdinand Count Fathom."

Laurence Sterne, 1713–1768, was a nondescript in society, literature and religion. He wrote excellent sermons and practiced low vices; married a lady because she was rich, and hated her because she was an invalid. "A man of genius, but a sad sinner." His only novel, "Tristam Shandy" is as incoherent as his own wayward rambling life, yet like him, it is thoroughly delightful with all its faults. In that one book are several immortal creations. "Captain Shandy," "Corporal Trim," "Dr. Slop," and dear "Uncle Toby," not forgetting "Widow Wadman," with "Something in her Eye." His "Sentimental Journey" is coarse and of no lasting worth.

Goldsmith, 1728–1744, must he mentioned here as belonging like Sterne to the Subjective School, in his eharming story, "The Vicar of Wakefield," but he belongs to more than one school, and will appear later. We love and pity "poor Goldy."

Mackenzie imitated Sterne's style but lacked his genius in his "Man of Feeling."

HISTORY.

The Historians must next be spoken of. As far down as the Eighteenth century history was simply a chronicle of facts, without any use of philosophy to teach by past example. Hume, Gibbon, and Robertson came together and originated a new school of history. It was a sceptical age, and like the French philosophers, Hume, 1711–1776, was an infidel, reflecting their free inquiry and boundless criticism. Jeffery said that even the structure of his sentences was French. In philosophy his scepticism led towards truth. To Hume we owe the philosophy of Kant, of Reed. He is also highly commended by Lord Broughham as a political economist. In regard to miracles he thought the weight of evidence was against their truth. He was an ardent Tory, which is seen in his tenderness for the Stuarts. Hume was too indolent to be always accurate, too bigoted to be impartial, yet such is the charm of his style, that all

lovers of history read, admire, and quote his History of England. It is still used as a text book.

Robertson, 1721–1793, the second of the great historians, was a quiet Scotch pastor, wrote a History of Scotland during the reigns of Queen Mary and of James VI; his last work, a History of Charles V. and a History of America, in ten volumes. His work is pleasant, graceful, reliable as far as he had studied, but he had no genius.

Gibbon, 1737–1794, was far superior to both, and the greatest historian England has produced. "The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," extends over thirteen centuries, a gigantic theme for a mind to grapple with. Unlike Hume he searched carefully for facts. Fox used to say that Gibbon's History was immortal because nobody could do without it. The general student must refer to Gibbon, because there is no other work to which he can refer. His "prevailing grandeloquence" is a blemish, but his style is excellent. He has been blamed for his solemn and insiduous sneer against Christianity. But the Christian religion can only be helped by more light, more truth, and lies or sneers never permanently affect it. James Boswell, 1740–1795; Horace Walpole, 1717–1797; John Lord Hervey, 1696–1743; Sir William Blackstone, 1723–1780, and Adam Smith, should be grouped here as contributors to the history of this time in various ways. Each one is well worth looking up.

"Schools" of Poetry are like waves of the sea. There is the same rise, swell, and ebb in each from day to day and age to age. You notice, the *natural*, *artificial*, *transitional* in verse.

Chaucer looked straight into nature's face. Pope wrote of society and cared for correct form. Hare says when Milton lost his eyes, Poetry lost hers. Man and the town, the drawing-room and candle-light, usurped the place of mountain, meadow and moonlight.

Now both poets and people tired of such stiffness and longed for fresh air.

POETRY.

Thomson, 1700–1748, is the head of this "*Transitional* School." He is the poet of Nature, and the "Seasons;" a fat and lazy poet who lay in bed and glorified early rising, and when lounging in his dressing gown, along the sunny walks of his garden, would bite a mouthful out of the peaches ripening on his wall, too lazy to lift his hand to pluck them.

He wrote the "Castle of Indolence," a dreamy, drowsy allegory, written in the style of Spenser. The very words lull you to repose.

He opened a new pathway in English Literature. His "Seasons" was just in season—a series of beautiful pastorals. He "broke away from the tea-tray

landscape of Pope, and painted nature *directly.*". The Seasons are out of fashion now.

Bascom says: "If Thomson had added to this love of nature equally earnest human sympathies, and could have given these the vent of a creative purpose, he would have possessed the endowments of a great poet." It was of him that Lord Littleton said he left—

"No line which, dying, he could wish to blot."

Gray 1716-1771. Of all English poets, perhaps the most finished artist whose "Elegy" is perhaps the most widely-known poem in our language was also a link between the school of Pope and the modern poets.

No man ever went down to immortality with a smaller book under his arm. But the Elegy was worked over, elaborated, revised for eight years, and it expresses in an exquisite manner feelings and thoughts that are universal. General Wolfe said the night before he fell: "I had rather be the author of that poem than take Quebec." Dr. Johnson said: "Had Gray written often thus, it had been vain to blame and useless to praise him." Grays Letters are among the best in the language.

In his Elegy, and in other poems, Gray used to interweave descriptions of scenery with reflections on human life. So did Collins in his "Ode on the Passions" and the "Ode to Evening." Not yet much love of nature for its own sake. Goldsmith took a further step in his "Traveller" 1767, and "Deserted Village." He does not moralize so much as Gray; the scenes he paints are fine pictures; he is natural even to simplicity. Gray was probably the most learned man in Europe, shy, sensitive, fastidious.

Next in the catalogue of the Transition School is Cowper, 1731-1800, like Gray a recluse. He was a sensitive plant. Suffered from terrible attacks of despondency, when he feared he should be eternally lost, and at times lost his reason. He had two devoted lady friends, Mary Unwin and Lady Austen, who did much to cheer him. He had written "The Progress of Error" and "Truth and Expostulation" before he met Lady Austen, who gave him the subjects of those poems which have made him famous; "The Task," "John Gilpin," and the translation of Homer. In "The Castaway," published a year before his death, he pictures himself as a witch clinging to a spar on a stormy night on the Atlantic. Two pet hares were a great comfort to him.

Mark Akenside, 1721-1770, who wrote "The Pleasures of the Imagination," as did Campbell those of "Hope," and Rogers those of "Memory."

Other writers of this school are James Beattie, 1735-1803, remembered by "The Minstrel;" William Falconer by "The Shipwreck;" William Shenstone, 1714-1763, by "The Schoolmistress;" Henry Kirke White, 1785-1806.

His hymn, "The Star of Bethlehem," is a great favorite. Bishop Percy, 1728-1811, collecter of old ballads.

Mrs. Barauld, 1743-1825, whose "Hymns in Prose for Children," and "Evenings at Home," although prim, moralizing and mechanical, were a great advance in reading for children. She loved young people, and wanted to help, amuse, instruct and benefit them.

DR. JOHNSON.

And now let me introdnce Samual Johnson, who has been called the Great Bear and the Great Cham of Literature, a brusque, burly genius, who distinguished himself as teacher, poet, dramatist, moralist, dogmatist, essayist, biographer, lexicographer, critic, talker and friend! Read his life as told by Boswell, and you will learn to love the old Bear, even when he growls. His style was his own. Too many big Latin words. Johnsonese it was called.

Like almost all great men, he *began* poor and made his own way. His Dictionary was a great work, but is now superseded. In his definitions he showed his own peculiarities and prejudices. In poetry he clung to the artificial school and failed, though many of his lines are extremely fine. His "Lives of the Poets" are still valuable, though he was unfair as a critic. He was a marvellous talker, but despotic, and "made little fishes talk like whales," was pious, superstitious and really tender-hearted. Do not fail to be better acquainted with him. Consider Goldsmith as sizar, student, traveler, druggist's clerk, usher, physician, hack writer, historian, dramatist, novelist and poet.

There were three Literary *Forgers* in the Eighteenth Century.

James Macpherson, who pretended he had found some Ancient poetry translated from the Gaelic, written by Ossian, a blind bard, which caused great enthusiasm and discussion.

Chatterton, a poor, ambitious lad, who determined to win fame.

A friend who wanted to present him with a cup, asked what device he would have on it. "Paint me an angel with wings, and a trumpet to trumpet my name over the world." His father was sexton in a church, and in a chest containing old papers and parchments, Chatterton pretended to have found some poems. His deception was found out, and half-starved and utterly wretched, he killed himself.

"Alas, poor Chatterton!"

Ireland forged a play of Shakespeare's which he called Vortigern, was also discovered.

Several most interesting authors must be alluded to before we get to Scott. The Drama was in a better condition. Garrick, Foote, Sheridan and the

two Colmans deserve great honor for their efforts to elevate and purify the stage. Their plays are still popular.

Hannah More, 1745–1833, and Joanna Baillie, 1762–1851, were remarkable women of the time. Fanny Burney, 1752–1840, wrote two novels, Evelina and Cecilia, that were all the rage when they appeared, and formed an imtermediate step between the novels of Fielding and Scott.

Thomas Warton, 1728–1790, wrote a bulky History of English Poetry. Edmund Burke, 1730–1797, was one of the greatest men of all time. He was an Orator and Statesman—took noble ground in favor of American liberty.

WALTER SCOTT.

We have now reached The *Romantic* School, of which Scott was the first. He is famous both in prose and poetry, the most equable and the most prolific of English authors, 1771–1832. He may be said to have created the historic romance.

"Waverly," his first novel, published anonymously, was the wonder and delight of the land. He wrote as if by steam-power, one great novel in six weeks, another in a fortnight.

He wrote more than a score of novels and national tales, and Goethe says: "All is great in the Waverly novels—material, effects, characters, execution." His men are better sketched than his women. His one weakness was over-ambition to be a great landed proprietor. This and the failure of his publishers ruined him. He did all that he could do to pay his debts, but disappointment and over-work caused his death.

Byron's pre-eminence caused Scott to give up poetry, but his "Marmion" and "The Lay of the Last Minstrel," and, best of all, "The Lady of the Lake," have a charm all their own, and they will not be forgotten.

Maria Edgeworth, 1801, in her Irish stories gave the first impulse to the Novel of *National* character. Scott said he tried to do for England what she had done for Ireland. Tourgenieff, the late Russian novelist, also said that it was Miss Edgeworth's work which induced him to write of his countrymen.

Miss Austen, 1775–1817, wrote Sense and Sensibility, Pride and Prejudice, Mansfield Park, and novels of exquisite touch and finish, like Mosaic work. Her novels are still read and admired, and Miss Edgeworth's life has been written lately by two literary women and her tales revived for the young folks.

BYRON, SHELLEY, KEATS.

Byron, 1788–1824, comes in immediate succession after Scott. His life was short, stormy, dissolute, and he was his own worst enemy, more often the

guilty than the injured party. He liked to be thought worse than he was and posed for effect as a sad, bad boy. He wrote many wonderful poems, as Childe Harold, Lara, the Corsair and Don Juan, and in all depicts himself the handsome, lonely wanderer with mysterious griefs, and always irresistible to weak women.

He was an undoubted genius, with an inherited taint of insanity and deviltry. His descriptive powers are great; his word-pictures are as correct as photographs; his power over language was marvellous, also his mastery of rhythm and rhyme.

He seemed inspired at times by an angel, then by a demon. Some one has dubbed his poetry as of the "Satanic" School! He was not dramatic, had little success in drawing characters, no master of variety. Our sympathies are solicited in behalf of sin. He is the representative *Egotist* in English literature.

Shelley, 1792–1822, had a gifted, irregular, splendid, but unbalanced mind; with him imagination was supreme. Read The Cloud, The Skylark, Adonais, to gain an idea of his finest work. He is best in his Lyrics.

John Keats, 1795–1821, like Shelley, was cut off ere his genius ripened. Unlike him, he was not perplexed and disturbed by great human questions, but went back to Greece to find his inspiration. See Hyperion and Endymion. He also took us back to Mediæval romance in Isabella and the Eve of St. Agnes.

Boccacio had long ago told the story of the Pot of Baseil. He is at his best in smaller poems and sonnets. Read Ode to a Grecian Urn.

Byron was the poet of passion, Shelley truly spiritual, Keats all intellect and fancy.

Byron died at 36; Keats, 25; Shelley, 29.

Moore, 1780–1851, was an Irish prodigy, the pet and darling of his age, reflecting the age in his songs. His sentimental songs, set to old, well-loved airs of Ireland, were immensely popular with nobility and people.

He was a rollicking, jolly, thoughtless man of pleasure. His works touched almost every subject and so are valuable in a historic view. His Biographies are readable. Lalla Rookh is so true to nature that one traveler declared that to read it was like riding on a camel. "The effect is of a magnificent ballet and no expense spared in golden clouds, ethereal light, gauze-clad nymphs and splendid tableaux." He has been called "A lesser Anacreon," a "little Catullus."

Burns, 1759-1796, has been called the "Shakespeare of Scotland." No poet is more loved. Himself poor, he sang the poor. Neither poverty nor low

birth made a man the worse. "A man's a man for a' that." He was also a love-poet. "He has indited many songs that slip into the heart—just like light." He is the Ploughman Bard, the poet of homely human nature. His birthday is celebrated in three countries, several statues have been raised to honor his memory; he has had tributes from the best English and American poets.

Halleck says:

"Yes, read the names that know not death. Few nobler ones than Burns are there." Campbell, Hogg and Cunningham also belong to Scotland.

Among other writers of the Romantic School are Mrs. Hemans, Mrs. Norton, Miss Landon, Pollock, Leigh Hunt, Crabbe, Rogers and Campbell.

WORDSWORTH, COLERIDGE.

We have now reached the "Lake School," a silly, unmeaning name for a group of poets and authors, quite unlike in their ideas and style, who lived among the English Lakes. Perhaps it was imagined that the scenery was so inspiring as to create poets; but there is a deal of stuff in that idea. A true poet is born to sing, and will sing all the same if cramped in a coal-pit. Nature was now to be fully honored.

Wordsworth, (1770-1850), chose his incidents from common life, and preferred the homeliest language, sometimes giving thereby a bald simplicity to his verses which made them ridiculous. He believed that prose and verse require the same language, so at times he was naturally prosy. At times he was fairly sublime, as in his "Intimation of Immortality;" at times he was stupid and tiresome, as in The Idiot Boy. His Excursion is long and tedious; his sonnets are fine; some of his minor poems are full of beauty and grace. People are apt either to adore Wordsworth or be bored by him. "Of no other poet save Shakespeare have so many phrases become household words."

Coleridge (1772-1832) was a visionary, unpractical wonder, one of the best talkers, but a poor performer. Erratic, helpless. A giant in conception, a dwarf in execution, an opium-eater. What he accomplished was fragmentary —a great perhaps! Yet he has left some wondrous poetry that will live forever, as Christabel and the Ancient Mariner; his Table-Talk is of great literary value; he introduced German metaphysics to the English thinkers. Southey, 1774-1843, was the most ambitious, the most voluminous, and the least popular author of his age. He wrote poetry, history, biography; in fact, tried his pen at all styles, and although he predicted his own immortality, he will soon be unread, and after a time forgotten.

De Quincey, 1785-1859, has written twenty volumes of Essays, rambling, involved, learned, and at times fascinating. He will be remembered by his book, Confessions of an Opium-Eater. He said his life under that bondage was "*Hell.*"

Wilson, 1785, 1854, or "Christopher North," as he was called, was a grand specimen of vigorous manhood and great genius. He was poet, novelist, essayist. Read his life as told by his daughter, Sara Coleridge, and poor, deformed and drunken Hartley Coleridge. Dorothy Wordsworth and Southey's second wife, Caroline Bowles, all deserve a place in this group.

After Wordsworth came a natural reaction, and the poet who led the party was Alfred Tennyson, 1810. Wordsworth was intensely realistic. Tennyson is mystic and ideal. Each of his smaller poems is a thought. He must be studied. He is the present Poet—Laureate—eminently representative of the Victorian age.

MRS. BROWNING.

Mrs. Browning is to me the grandest woman poet that ever lived, 1809-1863. Her sonnets from the Portuguese are unsurpassed; her most important work is Aurora Leigh, in which she advocates the intellectual claims of woman, and yet believes in the supremacy of love. Her husband, Robert Browing, (1812), has done grand work, but his later poems are so obscure, and learned, and unexplainable, that one needs a glossary, a dictionary of mythology, classic lore and full knowledge of the old masters to know what he means. Some of his short Lyrics are perfect. A life-long study of his later efforts *may* repay some students.

There has been a marked change in popular literature within the last fifty years. Prose literature is more in demand. The Novel has gained in influence.

Science is making steady progress. With Darwin's works a new era began.

Scientists, Darwin, Huxley, Tyndall, Owen, Wallace, etc.

Literature has its freaks and fashions as much as ladies' bonnets. Just now it is fine to be æsthetic, to analyze civilized emotions, to be pre-Raphaelite-ish! that is, to depict with extreme accuracy every minute detail.

We have now arrived in our seven-league boots at our own times, and there are at least one hundred shining lights which I want to display.

What can be done?

They must be hastily grouped under different heads, as in Poetry:

Morris, Swinburne, the Rosettis, Clough, Matthew Arnold and Edwin Arnold (no relation!) Jean Ingelow, Adelaide Proctor and her father, "Barry

Cornwall," Tupper of the Proverbial Philosophy, Lord Houghton, Coventry, Patmore, Palgrave, Dobell, Alexander Smith, Hamerton, Horne, Aytoun, Kingsley and Walter Thornbury.

What a galaxy there!

Then the Historians, as Hallam, Grote, Turner, Lingard, Tytler, Alison Arnold, May, Stubbs, Langmead, Miss Strickland, Macaulay and Carlyle, and at least thirty others!

For Essayists, Macaulay again, and Lamb, Hazlett, Jeffrey, Mackintosh, Leigh Hunt, Brougham, Gladstone, Wilson, Sydney Smith, Boyd, "the Country Parson," and Dr. Brown, author of Rab and his Friends.

And Novelists, Thackeray, Dickens, George Eliot, Charles Reade, George Macdonald, Disraeli, Lord Lytton, Wilkie Collins, and Anthony Trollope, whose autobiography has just been published. And *forty* more!

Do not let all these names discourage or frighten you. One hour of careful reading each day will soon make you quite well informed in English Literature, if taken in a nutshell.

AMERICAN LITERATURE.

"JUST A THIMBLEFULL."

MISS KATE SANBORN.

Author of Round Table Series, Year of Sunshine, etc.

THE FIRST OR COLONIAL PERIOD—1620--1775.

OUR ancestors early began to found schools and colleges. Harvard College was endowed in 1638 and there were seven Colleges before 1767. The first printing-press was at Harvard. The first book printed in America, the Bay Psalm Book, Cambridge, 1640, awkward, hobbling, disjointed doggerel, painful to the composer and now intolerable. At the start American Literature was imitative and theologic. Novels and plays were forbidden fruit.

Prominent names in the Colonial theological literature, Rev. John Cotton, 1585–1652, who prepared a catechism, printed in the "New England Primer." He originated the custom of keeping Saturday night as a holy time. Roger Williams, 1606–1683, a Baptist, who was persecuted by those who had been assailed for their own views at home. They insisted on a freedom to worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences, but when it came to some one's else conscience they dictated to him and he had to leave or be burned. John Eliot translated the entire Bible for the Indians. These Bibles are now extensively read, and large prices are paid to obtain them.

Michael Wigglesworth, 1631–1705, wrote some dull poems. Peter Folger, 1618–1690, one of Franklin's grandfathers, wrote "A Looking-Glass for the Times," and other doggerel.

Cotton Mather, 1663–1728, was a learned, conceited Calvanist of the bluest stripe. He believed in witches (especially in Salem), and wanted them put to death; yet was a friend to the Indian or any human being in distress. "Magnalia" is his greatest work, a history of New England in Church and State.

Captain John Smith wrote a True History of Virginia, which is untrustworthy, and other accounts of his adventures.

The first three Governors of the Plymouth Colony wrote well about public affairs. Winthrop, Bradford and Winslow.

Numerous College Presidents also wrote with ability and influence. Everybody published pamphlets and essayed poor poetry.

The first real poet of America was a woman, "Anne Bradstreet," 1612–1672, called "a peerless gentlewoman," "the mirror of her age, the glory of her sex," "the tenth muse." One of her ardent admirers exclaimed:

> "Let not her happy memory e'er lack
> Its worth in Fame's eternal Almanac."

She had poetic power, but her style was marred by imitating what was called the "Fantastic School," which was then the fashion in other countries. Her aphorisms are full of wisdom, and condensed force. Her life is to be written for the Eminent Women Series by Helen Campbell.

Jonathan Edwards, 1703–1758, has the greatest name of his period, known on both continents as a metaphysician. His principal work is "On the Freedom of the Will." He maintained that the will is not self-determined, yet insisted he was not a necessitarian. His opinions have had great weight, and have met with strong opposition.

REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD—1775–1800.

Literature of this period distinctly *political.*

Five examples of Oratory in Patrick Henry, James Otis, Adams and Jefferson, Fisher Ames.

John Adams said of the great speech made by Otis in 1761, "American independence was then and there born."

Greatest name. Benjamin Franklin, 1706–1709, famous in political diplomacy, science, inventions, literature, society. Was also the author of "Poor Richard's Almanac," full of wise saws about economy and worldly wisdom, of which ten thousand a year were sold. His writings fill ten octavo volumes, and they are valuable to-day. Read his life as told by Parton, who is one of our best biographers.

Bancroft said of Franklin, "He never failed to speak the right word in the right place."

His tact and prudence and courage and dignity as Minister to France were grand beyond expression. He showed that lightning is electricity, invented the lightning-rod, the Franklin stove, and many other good things.

Thomas Jefferson wrote the, "Declaration of Independence."

The *Federalist* was an important publication; a series of papers by Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay, on the advantages of adopting the Constitution.

John Adams, 1735–1826, wrote some powerful political pamphlets and excellent letters.

His wife, Abigail Adams, 1744–1818, was a remarkable woman for any time or any country and her correspondence with husband and son deserves a place in our literature. Washington, Jefferson and Madison contributed to the political literature. The poets of the time wrote mainly in satiric vein, as Francis Hopkinson and John Trumbull.

Dr. Rush said of Hopkinson that in humor and satire he was not surpassed by Swift or Rabelais. That is a little too strong, but he was extremely witty as in his specimen of a Collegiate Examination, and his comments on our custom of whitewashing.

Other poets were Joel Barlow, who sung of Hasty Pudding. Phillis Wheatley, "a sooty prodigy," brought from Africa and sold on the slave market at six, who was considered a "phenomenon" by some, and by others "below the dignity of criticism."

Mrs. Mercy Warren wrote satiric verses on the public men and the female foibles of her day, also a three-volume History of the Revolution.

David Ramsay wrote a History of the United States.

Lindley Murray was a famous Grammarian and philologist. Goodrich, in his Recollections says that John Trumbull, 1750–1831, was undoubtedly the most conspicuous literary character of his day in this country. He wrote a then celebrated poem, *McFingal*, was a scholar, wit and gentleman.

John Ledyard, 1751–1788, was a celebrated traveler and has written his experiences.

Noah Webster, 1758–1843, made a famous Spelling Book, an English Grammar, and a Dictionary of the English language upon which he spent twenty years.

(Dr. Johnson gave seven to his Dictionary, employing six assistants as copyists. The Dictionary of the French Language employed forty scholars for many years.)

Webster's books are still used by millions.

Wilson, the Ornithologist, must have a brief space. He was a poor Scotch lad, apprenticed to a weaver till he was eighteen. Burn's poetry fired his soul and he put forth a volume of poems, not a success. Disgusted with his trade he came to the United States, landing without a shilling. Walking to Philadelphia he shot a woodpecker on the way which led to a deep interest in birds and bird life.

He succeeded in preparing seven most valuable volumes about birds. Few examples can be found of a braver man more persistent and hopeful in the face of difficulties. Audubon was his honored successor.

THE AGE OF IRVING—1800--1850.

The Literary life of America dates from the Nineteenth Century.

First Novelist: Charles Brockden Brown, 1771--1810. His novels are of the intensely terrific school; Wieland, Ormond, Arthur Mervyn. He started a monthly magazine; was the first of our authors to make his whole living out of literature. Many poets made themselves famous by a single song. Joseph Hopkinson by Hail Columbia; Francis S. Key, Star Spangled Banner; Robert Treat Paine, Adams and Liberty; Samuel Woodworth, The Old Oaken Bucket; John Howard Payne, Home, Sweet Home; Clement C. Moore, A Visit from St. Nicholas; Joseph Rodman Drake has left two choice poems, The Culprit Fray and the American Flag.

He and Fitz Greene Halleck were literary partners. Halleck wrote Marco Bozarris which ran like wild-fire through the country, and has probably been recited by more frightened school-boys than any other piece.

Richard Henry Dana's best poem is The Buccaneer.

Richard Henry Wilde wrote a beautiful lyric, My Life is a Summer Rose. Albert G. Greene, Old Grimes is Dead; Rev. William A. Muhlenberg, I Would not Live Alway; John Pierpont, Passing Away. Charles Sprague wrote a Shakespearian Ode which ranks high as Gray's Progress of Poesy.

Elizabeth Lloyd Howell wrote one poem, Milton's Prayer for Patience, which was published in a fine English edition of Milton as his own.

Several women wrote a deal of poetry about this time. Mrs. Sigourney, 1791–1865, wrote on every subject that touched her heart and 'twas often touched, but her efforts were rather feeble. Good in spirit, florid, artificial, over sentimental in execution.

Mrs. Maria Brooks wrote an impassioned, mystical poem called Zophiel, which makes one think of tube roses and passion flowers. Southey thought her superior to Sappho!

The Davidsons' were two precocious sisters who sang pleasantly and died early,

Hannah F. Gould wrote a good deal, but The Frost and A Name in the Sand are all that are now quoted from her. Mrs. Frances Osgood and Amelia Welby wrote pleasing verses. All these women had more sentiment than strength.

Washington Allston, 1789–1843, poet and painter, wrote some mediocre poetry and a tolerably good novel.

Edgar Allan Poe, 1811–1849, was a fitful, wayward, dissipated genius, who wrote some weird stories that make chills creep over one, like a whispered story of a real ghost at twilight, as The Gold Bug, The Murder in the Rue

Morgue. His poetry is unique, he stands alone among verse writers, and is by some greatly admired. Lowell says of him, "Three-fifths of him genius and two-fifths sheer fudge."

N. P. Willis, 1806–1867, and George P. Morris, 1802–1864, were another set of literary partners, editing the "Home Journal and New York Mirror." Willis was a dapper, jaunty, slightly foppish man of society, who could write a graceful, sparkling editorial on the slightest theme, penned some "Scriptural Poems" which are exquisite, and dashed off a quantity of society verses, and in prose "Hurrygraphs" and Pencillings," told somewhat too freely of his intimacies with English nobility, and gave pleasant pictures of society here.

Morris had a gift for writing songs that could be sung or easily committed to memory, as Woodman, Spare that Tree, and Near the Lake where Drooped the Willow, which I have to hum to its air as I write the name.

Park Benjamin was also a successful editor, and wrote a number of poems which should be collected in book form. The Departed is one that is familiar to many. The Sexton has been set to music for a bass voice, and is very effective as the last line is rolled out:

"I gather them in! I gather them in!"

Charles Fenno Hoffman was another editor-poet, starting "The Knickerbocker Magazine." Sparkling and Bright, a drinking song, is still greatly used by college boys.

Epes Sargent's name recalls his song, A Life on the Ocean Wave.

James Gates Percival, 1795–1856, was once in high repute as a poet; published three volumes. His address to Seneca Lake, beginning

"On thy fair bosom, silver lake,"

seems to hold a place in books of selections; also his poem on Consumption.

John G. C. Brainard, 1796–1828, had a short but a noble life; he edited the Mirror, at Hartford. He wrote on Niagara when almost gone with consumption, and Jared Sparks says that of all the tributes to that great wonder of nature, "we do not remember any so comprehensible and forcible, and at the same time so graphically correct as this." Whittier has honored his memory with a poem.

Henry Ware, Jr., 1793–1843, had the true poetic spirit. See his "Seasons of Prayer."

Edward C. Pinkney, 1802–1828, was a brilliant Southerner who died too early to develop his powers, which were great. "A Health," is one of his poems that is often quoted.

George D. Prentice, the witty editor of the Louisville Journal, politician, philanthropist, an able lawyer, statesman, author, journalist, was also a

poet, and a *success* in all. Bryant said: "I have never known any one in editorial life who equalled him in the energetic and industrious use of his powers. Of the vastness of those powers very few are able to take the measure." Henry Watterson says: "He was without question the most popular and influential newspaper writer of whom we have any record."

Hannah Adams, 1755–1832, was the first American woman who was a professional author.

Her History of New England was the first standard book written by a New England woman. She wrote a View of All Religions and a History of the Jews. She was also the first woman who ever ventured into the Athæneum to read its treasures, and was the first person to be buried in Mount Auburn.

NOVELISTS.

Cooper, 1789–1851, ranks highest among American novelists before 1850. He wrote thirty-four novels, representing the American mind in its adventurous character. His themes were the idealized Indian, sea-life, and pioneer experience. He was the first American writer that obtained general recognition in Europe. Besides his works of fiction, he wrote an excellent History of the Navy of the United States, and a series of sketches of travel. He was original but unequal.

His daughter Susan F. Cooper has done some charming work in her "Rural Hours," the chatty journal of a bright, observant, cultured woman for the year.

Catherine M. Sedgwick, 1789–1867, made her first appearance as a novelist at about the same time as Cooper, and had about equal rank here and abroad. Like him she took themes of national interest. A New England Tale, the Linwood or sixty years since in America give an idea of her subjects. Her stories for the young are better than many we call good now-a-days. The same may be said of her Letters from Abroad to Kinsfolk at Home.

Sylvester Judd, 1813-1853, was author of an uncommon novel, called Margaret. Some consider this a great work, others find it too odd to be agreeable.

James K. Paulding, 1778–1860, wrote satire, prose and poetry. Worked with Irving.

T. S. Arthur had the same place in the last generation that E. P. Roe occupies now, pouring forth a great number of moral and mediocre stories which suit a certain class and sell prodigously.

WASHINGTON IRVING.

The most prominent writer of this period was Washington Irving, 1783–1859. He has been called the Goldsmith of America and compared to Addison.

He was a native of New York City. At nineteen he wrote for a newspaper edited by his brother, using the name of Jonathan Oldstyle. His health was delicate, and while traveling abroad, he met Washington Allston and was so delighted with him and his paintings that he nearly decided to give up literature for art. But when a person has Irving's power with the pen, he is bound to keep on using it. He returned to New York in 1806 and started a periodical called Salmagundi, after the manner of Steele and Addison, professing to give the "whim whams and opinions of Launcelot Langstaff, Esquire." Like Addison he had the help of friends, Paulding among them, and like Addison he satirized the social follies of the day in a good-humored way with a story running through the whole.

In December, 1809 appeared Knickerbocker's History of New York; it was begun to ridicule a popular hand-book, and devoloped into a comic history which delighted all but a few sensitive Dutchmen. This was all our own, no imitation of any author or style. While abroad he published the Sketch-Book, Bracebridge Hall, and then Tales of a Traveler. Walter Scott said of the Sketch-book, "It is positively beautiful."

Who is not delighted with Rip Van Winkle and the Legend of Sleepy Hollow? It is now a standard English Classic.

After a residence in Spain for several years, first as a translator, then as United States Minister, he gave us Life of Columbus, Conquest of Granada, The Alhambra, Mahomet and his Successors, Spanish Papers, etc. The results of an extended Western tour were Tour of the Prairies, Astoria, etc. His contributions to the Knickerkocker Magazine were collected under the name of Wolfert's Roost.

At his home on the Hudson, "Sunnyside," he wrote the Lives of Goldsmith and Washington. Twenty-three years of his life were spent abroad, so that he is "neither English nor Yankee—just Irving."

Thackaray spoke of him as "the first ambassador whom the New World of Letters sent to the Old." His style is graceful, fluent, humorous, picturesque, refined, easy and elegant. Hart pronounces Irving the most popular of all American authors.

William H. Prescott, 1796–1859, was the most brilliant of American Historians. He was partly blind, his left eye being fatally injured by a crust of bread being thrown at him in sport by a College Classmate. It is equally remarkable that the offender never apologized and the uufortunate man never complained. His perseverance amidst almost hopeless difficulties is a noble lesson for all who feel depressed by obstacles in the way of accomplishment. His History of Ferdinand and Isabella was translated into five European

languages. Conquest of Mexico, Conquest of Peru, and Philip the Second, were equally popular and admired. "Not since Milton has so high a reputation been won by a man practically blind."

He does not always seize the direct connection between effect and cause; but no one has exceeded him in faithfulness and patience of investigation, clearness and picturesqueness of description, and especially in charity towards the blunders and bigotry of by-gone generations.

BIOGRAPHY.

In biography, Jared Sparks, 1794–1866, holds a high rank. Principal works, the Life of Washington, and Life of Franklin.

William Wirt, 1772–1834, wrote a Life of Patrick Henry, and a Life of Washington.

Famous Orators of this time were John Quincy Adams, Daniel Webster, Henry Clay, John C. Calhoun and Edward Everett.

Among the Essayists, Critics, etc., of this time it is hard to choose. Samuel G. Goodrich, the renowned "Peter Parley," can certainly claim a place. His school books, (especially on geography), are well known. He published the first "Annual," that appeared in our country. Compiled numerous books, and his "Recollections of a Lifetime" is immensely interesting.

Lydia Maria Child, 1802–1880, was a philanthropist, abolitionist, and author, with liberal views on religion, and a sunny, helpful way of looking at every thing.

She was one of the first to write for children. Her "Juvenile Miscellany" was a delight to many, and her "Looking towards Sunset" takes the most cheerful view of approaching old age.

Henry Reed, 1808–1854, and H. B. Wallace, 1817–1852, were excellent critics of literature and art.

Rufus W. Griswold, 1815–1857, was the first to present in chronological order the writers of this country, in three large volumes, Poets and Poetry of America, etc.

Joseph E. Worcester, 1784–1865, compiled a Dictionary, which runs a nearly even race with Webster's.

Margaret Fuller Ossoli, 1810–1850, Journalist, Essayist, Talker, was a rare being. Her ideas have a germinating power, and her influence is stronger to-day than ever.

Mrs. Kirkland, 1801–1864, wrote humorous sketches of Western pioneer life, and much besides on domestic, social and literary topics.

EMERSON AND THE CONCORD AUTHORS.

Ralph Waldo Emerson, 1803–1882, is the most distinguished of American Essayists, and has had more influence on thought and style than any other author of our land. His essays are crammed full of solid thoughts that teach one to live and help one to grow. It does not matter whether you begin at middle or end, you will find crystallized truths, nuggets of pure gold; a whole dictionary of quotations could be made from them.

His volumes are named Representative Men, English Traits, The Conduct of Life, Society and Solitude, Letters and Social Aims.

"He was a philosopher only in that ancient sense of which his friend Alcott still offers a fainter adumbration; his mission was to sit, like Socrates beneath the plane trees and offer profound and beautiful aphorisms without even the vague thread of the Socratic method to tie them together." Some good critics call him our greatest Poet; others, as good, think there is more real poetry in his prose. I will give one of his sentences:

"Build, therefore, your own world."

Nathaniel Hawthorne, 1804–1864, holds the first place among our writers of fiction; "the greatest imaginative writer since Shakespeare."

His Professor in Rhetoric was so impressed with his power that he used to summon the family to enjoy his college compositions. He was shy, sensitive, sad, with feminine insight, reserve and purity, with a "physical affinity with solitude."

"A profound anatomist of the heart, he was singularly free from morbidness, and in his darkest speculations concerning evil was robustly right-minded."

Mosses from an Old Manse, Twice Told Tales, The Scarlet Letter, The House of the Seven Gables, The Blithedale Romance, are his best books. His son, Julian Hawthorne, inherits in some degree his father's ability, and his daughter Rose, Mrs. George Lathrop, has written some charming poems and stories for little folks.

Henry D. Thoreau, 1817–1816, was a literary hermit, a recluse, who despised society and its burdens; thought man was "too much insisted on;" never attended church, or voted, or paid a tax, preferring solitude and freedom in a ragged shanty on the shore of Walden Pond, with frogs for company. As Lowell says: "The tub of Diogenes had a sounder bottom." But he wrote delightfully of nature and animal life in A Week on Concord and Merrimack Rivers; Walden, or Life in the Woods, etc.

A. Bronson Alcott, 1799, an Educator in his ideal way. Philosopher, Converser, head of the "Concord School," and the proud father of Louisa M.

Alcott. I heard him say that in a late tour through the West, he "rode all the way in Lou's chariot," meaning that she had friends and admirers everywhere. She went bravely out into the world in plain clothes, made by her own hand, and twenty dollars earned by writing, and has supported herself through toilsome years to the grand, and paying triumph, never forgetting to help the dear ones at home.

Emerson and Theodore Parker were her true friends. Her books are eagerly sought for by publishers and readers. Who has not read "Little Women" and the other stories that naturally followed? She lost her health and vigor by over-work during the war as nurse in the Soldiers' Hospital. "Moods," her most grown-up story, has lately been revised.

William Ellery Channing, a nephew of the famous divine, wrote a biography of Thoreau, and four volumes of poems.

Jones Very, of Salem, belongs to the Transcendental School. Emerson compared his sonnets with the utterances of the Hebrew prophets. He will be admired by the few.

Frank B. Sanborn, who still lives at Concord, Mass., keeps up the reputation of that otherwise sleepy old town by his admirable Lectures on Literature; his recent Life of Thoreau, and his wide interests as Scientist and Philanthropist.

William Cullen Bryant, 1794–1878, connected the earlier and later days of our literature. His Thanatopsis, begun at nineteen, and The Flood of Years, composed when over eighty, show the same even, and matured flow of solemn thought. He is the poet of Nature. His Forest Hymn shows how well he loved her.

He was for a long time editor of the *Evening Post*, one of the best New York dailies. After he was seventy he translated the Iliad of Homer, in hours snatched from morning sleep. His defects were lack of fire and passion; he was *always* calm. Lowell says:

> "If he stir you at all—it is just on my soul,
> Like being stirred up with the very North Pole."

LONGFELLOW, WHITTIER, HOLMES.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, 1807-1882, was the third in age of the great American poets, Bryant and Emerson having been his seniors, and Whittier ten months his junior. No poet has ever been more universally beloved, or more widely known. His Psalm of Life is printed on the fans in China and Japan. At Iceland a gentleman said to Mr. Cyrus Field, "We know Longfellow as well as you do." In England he is favorite in palace and cottage. He is never profound, but his tender melodies suit the people and comfort them.

Cardinal Wiseman says: "His works are household word swherever the English language is spoken." It is not necessary to repeat the names of his poems, for his songs are in the hearts of his friends. His prose Outre-Mer, a Pilgrimage Beyond the Sea, Hyperion, and a stout octavo, entitled "The Poets and Poetry of Europe," are well worth reading. In his old age he translated the Divine Comedy of Dante, doing it better than Chapman, Dryden, or Pope did similar work.

Holmes speaks of him as a gentle soul—

> **"Filled with a sweetness born of happier spheres,**
> **That wins and warms, that kindles, softens, cheers,**
> **That calms the wildest woe and stays the bitterest tears."**

John Greenleaf Whittier, 1807 —, (long may that blank remain unfilled !) is the poet of man as well as of nature, taking up in early life the cause of the slave, the poor, the wronged. He is a Quaker, but his breadth is seen in his creed rather than his hat-brim, and is eminently a national poet. R. H. Stoddard says: "If I wish to give an intelligent foreigner an idea of Mr. Whittier's genius, and at the same time an idea of the characteristics of American poetry, I should ask time to read "Snow Bound." His reputation rests on his shorter poems as Maud Muller, The Eternal Goodness, the Barefoot Boy, etc. Dr. Osgood says: By Whittier's "Songs of Labor" work was almost turned into play. Unlike Longfellow his works show no evidence of assimilation or translation. He is original and American.

> **"The faith that lifts, the courage that sustains,**
> **Those thou wert sent to teach."**

Oliver Wendell Holmes, 1809 —, lyrist, epigrammatist, novelist, essayist, writer on medical topics, presider over the later school of lyric art. His novels are read in every land. His wit is never dull. He has the rare gift of writing graceful and really easy after-dinner and commemorative poems. For an "occasion" he is unrivalled. "His Autocrat of the Breakfast Table" is well known to the inhabitants of New Zealand, Calcutta, New York and Paris.

Underwood says of him: "If he had never perpetrated a joke, he would have been one of the most original of essayists; and when the world forgets the sallies that have set tables in a roar, and even the lyrics that have set a nation's heart on fire, still his picture of the ship of pearl will preserve his name forever.

Read The Last Leaf; Old Ironsides; The Deacon's Masterpiece, as specimens of his pathos, spirit and patriotism, and clear fun. His novels, Elsie Venner and The Guardian Angel, he calls his "Medicated Novels."

James Russell Lowell, 1819, our present Minister to England, is considered our leading American critic, although Stedman nearly divides that honor with him, and Edwin P. Whipple is equal to either. Among My Books and My Study Windows, are invaluable to the student who wants a safe guide.

The Biglow Papers, a satire against the Mexican War and Slavery, have as much truth as wit and satire. His Fable for Critics is even better than Goldsmith's Retaliation—brief and shrewd estimates of his contemporaries.

The Vision of Sir Launfal is his most elaborate poem.

And now for a rapid review of other poets, as Saxe, 1816, a humorous writer who has an especial talent for epigrams, travesties and punning verses, a la Tom Hood.

William Allen Butler, 1825, wrote "Nothing to Wear."

Bayard Taylor, 1825–1878, poet, traveler, novelist, and our late minister to Germany. His books are too many to mention. His translation of Faust is the best English translation. His Echo Club is a clever imitation of other poets.

T. B. Read, 1822–1872, wrote Sheridan's Ride, Drifting, and The Wagoner of the Alleghanies.

George H. Boker, 1824, mainly dramas; lately a strange revengeful poem, The Book of the Dead.

R. H. Stoddard, 1825, poet, critic, biographer, compiler, a man of unusual ability. His poems are generally in a minor strain. His wife has written two novels, crisp, realistic and readable.

Cristopher Cranch, 1813, has written too little; a rare fault.

George A. Calvert has produced many dramas and poems; also several biographies and "studies."

W. W. Story, the Sculptor, has written some good poetry. "He and She," just out, will not increase his reputation.

Dr. J. G. Holland, 1819–1881, was the apostle of common sense. He did much for our people by his lectures; his poems, as Bitter Sweet; his plain talks, like Timothy Titcomb's letters. He wrote several novels, and was editor for a long time of Scribner's Monthly.

Others who have furnished both prose and poetry are Trowbridge, Aldrich, Stedman, George P. Lathrop.

Our later Southern poets are Sidney Lanier, Henry Timrod, Paul H. Hayne.

For poets of the West we have Joaquin Miller, with his Songs of the Sierras; Bret Harte, with dialect poems, and novels about California life; John Hay and W. M. Carleton, homely every-day life.

Charles G. Leland, as "Hans Breitman," represents the German element. Irwin Russell and several others reproduce the negro songs and speeches in capital fashion.

OUR WOMEN POETS.

In my estimation, Helen Hunt, (Mrs. Jackson), is far beyond all others. Emerson said: "I regard her as our best woman poet," and then added, "but why do I say woman!" Her prose sketches, as Bits of Travel, are delightful, She is a warm friend of the Indian, as is seen in "A Century of Dishonor," and her frequent articles in leading papers.

Then the Cary Sisters, whose lives have been told by Mrs. Mary Clemmer, who is well known by "A Woman's Letter from Washington," and her Poems.

Mrs. Julia Ward Howe is distinguished as lecturer, essayist and poet. "Her Battle Hymn of the Republic" was an inspiration.

Margaret J. Preston, Elizabeth Akers Allen, Rose Terry Cooke, who also has a genius for hitting the genuine Yankee dialect; Nora Perry, Lucy Larcom, Celia Thaxter, the poet of the sea; Mrs. Annie Fields, Miss Phelps, Edna Dean Proctor, Julia R. Dorr, Mary D. Brine, Harriet P. Spofford, also a writer of remarkable stories; Louise Chandler Moulton, who modestly calls her poems "Swallow Flights," also writing good love stories and tales for children; Mary M. and Mary B. Dodge, Sallie M. B. Piatt, etc. What a pity to rattle over these precious names in such a hurry!

HISTORIANS.

America, like every other country, has produced her triad of historians, Bancroft, Prescott and Motley.

Prescott has been mentioned.

Mr. Bancroft's great work is the "History of the United States, on which he is still busy, working at Washington during the winter, and among his roses at Newport in summer months.

Motley, 1814-1877, Rise of the Dutch Republic, History of the United Netherlands, Life of John Barneveld. He has made a select and important portion of European History his own. The History of Holland during the period he treats is the history of European liberty.

Other historians are Richard Hildreth—History of the United States. Benson J. Lossing, a picturesque, graphic, spirited writer—Book of the Revolution; History of the War of 1812; Pictorial History of the Civil War; History of the War between the States. Francis Parkman—Conspiracy of Pontiac, Pioneers of France in the New World, &c.

John Gorham Palfrey, History of New England.

John Gilmary Shea—Legendary History of Ireland; History of Catholic Missions Among the Indian Tribes.

George Ticknor—History of Spanish Literature.

The Abbott Brothers—Jacob and John, entertaining histories and books for children. President Lincoln said he had gained all he knew of history from them.

John Foster Kirk—History of Charles the Bold.

George W. Greene, Historical View of the American Revolution.

George M. Towle, A History of Henry V., of England; Glimpses of History; a prolific contributor to Reviews and a popular Lecturer.

Edward A. Pollard, the most conspicuous Historian of the Confederacy.

John Lord, The Old Roman World, has just published five large volumes of his historical lectures.

President A. D. White, of Cornell University, has made several valuable contributions to historical literature.

J. T. Headley, Napoleon and his Marshals, Washington and his Generals, Second War between England and the United States. More than 200,000 copies of his books have been sold.

Mrs. E. F. Ellet, Historical Sketches; Women of the American Revolution, etc.

ESSAYISTS AND MISCELLANEOUS PROSE WRITERS.

Henry T. Tuckerman, 1713–1871, did excellent work as a literary critic.

E. P. Whipple, 1819, researches in Elizabethan Literature.

Edward Everett Hale, 1822, one of our most useful and entertaining writers. The Man without a Country; My Double and how he Undid Me; Ten Times One, etc.

His sister, Lucreatia P. Hale, has written with infinite humor for young people.

T. W. Higginson, Atlantic Essays, Out Door Papers, Young Folks' History of the United States. Malbone is his one novel.

George W. Curtis, 1824, Potiphar Papers, Prue and I, Tramps, Editor of Harper's Easy Chair.

Donald G. Mitchell, (Ik Marvel), Dream Life, Reveries of a Bachelor.

Kate Field, who has touched and adorned many departments of literature.

"Gail Hamilton," sparkling, spunky, spicy, scolding Gail; Country Living, A New Atmosphere, Woman's Work and Worthlessness. Sallie McLean produced a genuine sensation among Cape Cod Folks.

James T. Fields, publisher, lecturer, poet, essayist; Yesterdays with Authors; Underbrush, charming, genial, loveable in all he wrote.

Mrs. Sara J. Lippincott (Grace Greenwood), has long been a prominent and most pleasing writer for papers and magazines; has a special knack of writing for children. Her Haps and Mishaps of a Tour in Europe is one of the best records of footprints in the now well beaten track. Her History of My Pets has just re-appeared and is as good as new after being out of print for years.

Her poems, especially The Horseback Ride, is full of life. Her latest book is a life of Queen Victoria, admirably executed.

Mrs. A. C. L. Botta, compiled a Hand-book of Universial Literature, which is very generally used; has written a few choice poems; her home in New York City has been for years a head-center for literary people. At one of her informal evenings every body is somebody.

Sarah Orne Jewett, whom Howells considers "the most satisfactory literary worker of whom he has knowledge."

Fanny Fern, (Mrs. Parton,) 1811-1872, whose short sketches were crisp as ginger-snaps and twice as spicy.

NOVELISTS.

Mrs. Stowe, 1812—, Uncle Tom's Cabin was translated into every language that had a literature. Old Town Folks, etc., "Marian Harland," Mrs. Terhune, Alone, Hidden Path. Her novels were immensely popular. She has since written on Hygiene and Cookery, with rare sense and success. Her last novel, Judith, a tale of Southern life, is better than any of her preceding work as a novelist, and will rank deservedly high.

Theodore Winthrop ushered in a new order of fiction with John Brent and Cecil Dreeme. Mrs. Burnett, A Fair Barbarian, Through One Administration; Edward Eggleston, Hoosier Schoolmaster, The Circuit Rider, etc.

Howells: Wedding Journey, A Woman's Reason, etc., several good comedies, books of Travel, so faithful in description that they would serve as æsthetic guide books.

Henry James, Jr., a realistic writer, an analyzer of civilized emotions, a severe critic of Americans, thoroughly English in tastes and judgments—The Portrait of a Lady, etc.

Miss Phelps: Hedged In, The Silent Partner, The Story of Avis, many thrilling, short stories, a few Poetic Studies, also Gates Ajar, and Beyond the Gates. She delivered a course of lectures on "Representative Modern Fiction" before the Boston University in 1877, first thing of the sort ever attempted by a woman in this part of the world. Whittier said of them: "I never heard a

woman speak with such magnetic power." President Warren said "The genius of George Eliot has never been analyzed with superior if with equal subtilty of sympathy and clearness of discrimination."

Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis is powerful and sensational in Life in the Iron Mills, Waiting for the Verdict, etc.

Blanche Howard is a young writer of marked ability. Her One Summer was dainty and delightful; Aunt Serena even better, and her late novel, Guenn, a story of a Breton maiden, is to me the best story of the year.

George W. Cable is the latest sensation, with his stories of Creole life, and his readings and songs in that odd dialect.

Judge Tourgee, editor of the Continent achieved the greatest popular success since Uncle Tom's Cabin in "A Fool's Errand," and "Bricks Without Straw."

Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney has hosts of admirers for her Hitherto and Leslie Goldthwaite.

Mrs. Annie M. Crane showed morbid strength in Opportunity and Emily Chester.

The Warner Sisters, Susan and Anna, began years ago with that good story, The Wide, Wide World, and have been busily pouring forth similar stories to this day. First decidedly the best.

Mrs. Prentiss has had a blessed influence with her Stepping Heavenward, etc.

Among the latest claimants for fame in this department are Mr. Crawford, with his irrepressible Mr. Isaacs and Dr. Claudius, who loses his individuality before the novel ends. The nautical terms of Dr. Claudius, are mostly incorrect. Mr. Crawford has ability, but writes too rapidly.

Professor Hardy, of Dartmouth College, made a real sensation with his first story, "But Yet a Woman," a taking, but in this case, an unmeaning title. There is a wealth of beautiful thoughts and aphorisms in this book.

I will close with a bright name, Miss Woolson, who is thought by some to be our best woman novelist, Anne, For the Major.

Mrs. Agusta Evans Wilson, Mary J. Holmes, Mrs. Southworth, Mrs. Stephens, Mrs. E. Oakes Smith, Miss Caroline Chesebro, must at least be mentioned.

AMERICAN HUMOR.

Is represented by Charles D. Warner, of whose writings, My Summer in a Garden, best shows his delicate type of fun. Fred. S. Cozzens in Sparrowgrass Papers. Samuel T. Clemen's "Mark Twain," at times irresistible, but often coarse and dull. The Innocents Abroad is his best effort. Miss Hawley has made a nation laugh by her "Samantha Allen" series, as did Mrs. Whitcher a

generation gone by Widow Bedott. For newspaper hits recall the earliest lights as Seba Smith, ("Major Jack Downing;") Robert H. Newell, (Orpheus C. Kerr;) B. P. Shillaber, (Mrs. Partington;") George D. Prentice, George H. Derby, (John Phœnix;) "Charles F. Browne," the drawling, inimitable Artemas Ward; Henry W. Shaw, (Josh Billings), who made his fortune by poor spelling; D. R. Locke, (Petroleum V. Nasby;) Bailey, The Danbury News Man, etc. A new crop of these funny men spring up every season, some of them truly witty. Others imitate with visible effort.

The encyclopædists should be honored as well as thanked. Dr. Joseph Thomas, with his Dictionary and Biography; The Duyckinck Brothers' Encyclopædia of American Literature; Allibone, of the Lenox Library, Dictionary and English Literature, and his Selection of Prose and Poetical quotations. No one appreciates the value or the labor of such work until they have to compile a little themselves.

I think it a good plan to group these authors by dates and localities in one's own mind, as the Concord sages and literati; the early New York set of literary men, as Halleck, Drake, Paulding, Willis, Morris, etc.; Southern literature; early and late the immortal cluster at Boston.

Accustom yourselves to familiarity with distinguished writers in Washington, Philadelphia, or the West. Look up the history of journalism in this country, and the prominent editors, as Greeley, Bennett, Whitelaw Reid, G. D. Prentice, W. H. Hurlburt, George Childs, Murat Halsted; and among women, Mary Booth, "Jennie June," Mary M. Dodge, Miss Gilder, Ella Farman Pratt, the Stocktons, who have also written many stories that please both young and old.

Time compels me to omit mention of our Theological and Scientific writers, of whom we may well be proud. Our orators and statesmen have been shut out by lack of room, and in running over the long list I see I have no special niche for Walt Whitman.

NUMBER SIX.

People

AND

Places.

Nothing tends so much to enlarge the mind as traveling.

ISAAC WATTS.

EDITED BY

CHARLES E BOLTON

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SATURDAY EVENING, - - - - - - - JANUARY 5, 1884.

SIXTH ENTERTAINMENT.

MUSICAL PRELUDE, from 6:40 to 7:15. BY THE EDUCATIONAL BUREAU ORCHESTRA.

PROGRAMME—1. March—Mendelssohn's Spring Song—A. Parlow. 2. Overture—Lachner 3. Serenade—Flute and Cornet—Tit'l. 4. Walzer—Schwabische Weisen—G. Unrath.

RUSSIAN HYMN, - - - - - - - - - - BY THE AUDIENCE.
Still may thy blessing rest, Father most Holy, Over each mountain, rock, river and shore.
Sing hallelujah, Shout in hosannas, God keep our country, Free evermore.

LECTURE PRELUDE, from 7:15 to 7:45, - - - HON. B. G. NORTHRUP, LL.D

SUBJECT: "Homes and How to Improve Them."

SINGING SCHOOL, 7:45 to 8:00, - - Conducted by PROF. N. COE STEWART.

PRESIDING OFFICER. - - - - - - - - REV. HENRY M. LADD, D.D.

LECTURE, 8:00 to 9:30, - - - - - - - - BY MR. C. E. BOLTON.
SUBJECT: "From the Polar Sea to Paris." (75 Illustrations.)

PART FIRST.—A New World Discovered. The Flying Scotchman. Steamer Chartered at Glasgow. Columbus at Iceland. The Viking Ship, or the Kind of Boat in which Lief Discovered America Five Hundred Years Before Columbus. Along the Coast of Greenland to Julianes-haab. America's Oldest Ruin. Motzfeldt Family. Esquimaux Mothers and Baby. Home at the North. Seal Skin Traveling Tent. With the Giant Icebergs. Bear Hunting by Steam. The Midnight Sun. Summer in the Arctic Regions. The Northwest Passage. Sir John Franklin. Captain De Long. Polar Regions. Prof. Nordenskiold Finally Triumphs. The Norseman's Fatherland. Camp on the North Cape. Hunting Whales with Cannon. Polar Expedition. Cod Fishery. Warm Streams in Arctic Seas. Lapps and Finns. Cariole. Sixteen Yellow Ponies. Fantastic Church of Borgund. A Norwegian Welcome. Snow Everywhere. Christiania. The Capitol and its University. Land of the Swedes. "Venice of the North." Riddarholm Church and its Great Heroes. Upsala and its Students. King Oscar. Thorwaldsen. Museum—Mausoleum. Famous Bas-reliefs at a Sitting. Bible Hotel. Holland Windmills and Canals. Royal Palace. Dordrecht—once Powerful. German Flower Girl.

PART SECOND.—Residence of the Dutch Princes. Famous Paintings. Seaside Scheveningen. Belgian Gardens. Brussels, or "Paris in Miniature." King Leopold's Palace. Royal Lace—an Exquisite Pattern. Waterloo. Soldier's Pyramid. Paris, the French Mecca. Walk in the Tuileries Gardens, the Place de la Concorde, and Along the Brilliant Champs-Elysees, to the Arc de Triomphe. Fame Won. Charlotte Corday. A Lover Avenged. Chamber of Deputies. Eloquent Gambetta. Mr. Grevy, President of French Republic. Fine Art—1878. A Mammoth Horse. Column Vendome. The Classic Madeleine. French Flower Woman. Comfort in a Parisian Omnibus. Snug News-stand. Splendors of an Amusement Palace. An Exciting Scene. The Despotic Bastile, and July Column. Statue of the Republic. Boulevard Sebastopol. Hotel de Ville, and the Commune. Notre Dame, where Napoleon the Great Crowned Himself. The Imposing Pantheon. Excursion to Versailles. Louis XIV. Magnificent Fountains. Historic Battles. The Man of Destiny. Temple of Love. From an Unknown Shore. Gilded Dome of Hotel des Invalides. Napoleon's Tomb. Art at the Louvre. Gallery of Apollo. Venus de Milo. A Famous Painting.

SPECIAL NOTICES.—Redpath Bureau writes us, December 3rd, 1833: "Hon. Wm. Parsons sick—cancels all engagements in your section." Seventh Entertainment, Saturday Evening, January 12th, WALLACE BRUCE, Esq., Poet and Author. SUBJECT: "Native Mettle."

MISS JULIET CORSON, of the "New York School of Cookery," will give a course of five lectures to the members of the Educational Bureau as follows: Monday, Jan. 14th, "Marketing and Soup Making." Tuesday, Jan. 15th, "Good Bread and Simple Pastry." Wednesday, Jan. 16th, "Fish, Fowls and Sauces." Thursday, Jan. 17th, "Meats and Vegetables." Friday, Jan. 18th, "Food Chemistry and Table Etiquette." Lectures from 2:30 to 4:30 o'clock on afternoons of dates named. Admission without Bureau Course Ticket, Fifteen Cents, or Fifty Cents for the Course of Five Lectures.

PUNCTUALITY is the soul of business.

THE beauty of a *lovely* woman is like music.—*Adam Bede.*

GOOD actions are the invisible hinges of the doors of Heaven.—*Victor Hugo.*

WE HAND folks over to God's mercy and show none ourselves.—*Adam Bede.*

A WOMAN who plays with the love of a loyal man is a curse.—*French Writer.*

UNHAPPY the man whose mother does not make all mothers interesting.—*Richter.*

NO OBJECT really interests us but man, and in man, only his superiorities.—*Emerson.*

"O GOD, that men should put an enemy in their mouths to steal away their brains."—*Shakespeare.*

LOVE without esteem cannot reach far nor rise very high; it is an angel with but one wing.—*Dumas.*

I HAVE lived to know that the secret of happiness is never to allow your energies to stagnate.—*Adam Clarke.*

NOTHING has the true life in it unless it pays its way, or, like a boy or a colt, is to pay its way soon.—*James Parton.*

"IS YOUR note good?" said a man to a person who owed him. "It ought to be," was the reply, "Every body's got it.

A QUAKER hearing a person tell how much he felt for somebody in distress, said: "Friend, hast thou felt in thy pocket for him?"

"GUILTY or not guilty?" said a Judge to an Irishman. "Just as yer honor plazes. It's not for the likes o' me to dictate to yer honor."

LORD BROUGHAM'S definition of a lawyer: "A learned gentleman, who rescues your estate from your enemies, and keeps it himself!"

A PERSON visiting the London Museum was shown the skull of Oliver Cromwell. "It is extremely small," said the visitor." "Oh," said the guide, "it was his skull when he was a little boy."

LESSING, the celebrated German poet, was often absent-minded. Having missed money, he determined to test the honesty of his servant, and purposely left a purse on the table.

"Of course you counted it," said a friend.

"No; I forgot that!" replied Lessing, rather embarrassed.

A HUNGRY FAMILY.

This Illustration by courtesy of The New York Life Insurance Co.

RED, WHITE AND BLUE.

Maestoso.

1. O Co-lum-bia! the gem of the o-cean, The home of the brave and the free, The
2. When war winged its wide desolation, And threatened the land to deform, The
3. The U-nion, the U-nion for - ev - er, Our glorious nation's sweet hymn, May the

shrine of each patriot's de-vo-tion, A world of - fers hom-age to thee. Thy
ark then of freedom's foun-da-tion, Co - lum-bia, rode safe thro' the storm; With her
wreaths it has won never with-er, Nor the star of its glo - ry grow dim! May the

mandates make heroes as - sem-ble, When Lib - er-ty's form stands in view, Thy
gar-lands of vic - t'ry a - round her, When so proudly she bore her brave crew, With her
ser-vice u - ni - ted ne'er sev - er, But they to their col - ors prove true! The

banners make tyr-an - ry tremble, When borne by the red, white and blue.
flag proudly float-ing be - fore her, The boast of the red, white and blue.
Ar-my and Na - vy for - ev - er, Three cheers for the red, white and blue.

CHORUS.

When borne by the red, white and blue, When borne by the red, white and blue, Thy
The boast of &c.
Three cheers for &c.

ban - ners make tyr-an - ny trem-ble, When borne by the red, white and blue.

MARCHING THROUGH GEORGIA.

Words and Music by HENRY C. WORK.

1. Bring the good old bugle, boys! we'll sing an-oth - er song— Sing it with a spir - it that will start the world a - long— Sing it as we used to sing it, fif - ty thou - sand strong, While we were marching through Geor - gia.

CHORUS.

ff

"Hurrah! Hurrah! we bring the Ju-bi-lee! Hurrah! Hurrah! the flag that makes you free!"

ff

So we sang the chorus from At-lan-ta to the sea, While we were marching thro' Georgia.

2. How the darkeys shouted when they heard the joyful sound!
How the turkeys gobbled which our Commissary found;
How the sweet-potatoes, even started from the ground,
While we were marching through Georgia.

3. Yes, and there were Union men who wept with joyful tears,
When they saw the honor'd flag they had not seen for years;
Hardly could they be restrained from breaking forth in cheers,
While we were marching through Georgia.

4. "Sherman's dashing yankee boys will never reach the coast!"
So the saucy rebels said, and 'twas a handsome boast,
Had they not forgot, alas! to reckon with the host,
While we were marching through Georgia.

5. So we made a thorough-fare for Freedom and her train,
Sixty miles in latitude--three hundred to the main;
Treason fled before us, for resistance was in vain,
While we were marching through Georgia.

PLACES AND PEOPLE ABROAD.

SARAH K. BOLTON.

FAMOUS PEOPLE.

VICTOR HUGO, poet, novelist and dramatist, lives on a street named after him at Passy (Paris). His house is of cream-colored stone, attractive but unostentatious. The reception-room where we awaited his coming is hung with satin, striped in pink and red. The mantel is of red velvet, with gilt embroidery; the chairs of tapestry corresponding in color with the walls. The chandeliers are of exquisitely colored Sevres china, arranged for candles. Victor Hugo enters from the dining room, where he has been at dinner with some friends. A lady is on each arm. One with white hair is the life-long friend of his deceased wife. He greets us cordially, kissing the hand of each of the three ladies who have come to visit him. Though an exile in the island of Guernsey for nearly twenty years by reason of his hatred of the Bonapartes, he has learned almost no English, though he said to us, "I must speak a little English," but immediately began to converse in French. He stood much of the time by the mantel, with his hands folded behind him. He is of medium size, his snow white hair, cut rather close, standing up all over his massive head, and his eyes are piercing and strong. He impresses one as a fearless man, who would willingly die for liberty. All present treated him most deferentially. One young man said to him, "Great Master"—for thus they all address him—"you are the leader of the Nineteenth century." He replied: "Perhaps I am one of its representative men. I came in with the century, and I shall go out with it." He is a tireless worker, rising regularly at five or six in the morning, and writing all day at his desk, standing.

ROBERT BROWNING, living at Warwick Crescent, London, has all the kindness of manner of Whittier or Longfellow. He is seventy years old, with white hair and mustache, but with all the vigor of a man of fifty. His beautiful home is full of remembrances of Mrs. Browning, whose memory he tenderly cherishes. Her writing table, next his own, her chair, her books, her portraits, are all of touching interest. Being asked if he would not come to America, he said: "I dislike to cross the sea, and I have many friends here, so I fear I shall

never come." He is a Liberal in politics, I judge, from his admiration of Mr. Gladstone, and a practical, earnest thinker.

JOHN RUSKIN, the noble apostle of art in England, lives at the head of Coniston Water—a beautiful Lancashire lake. His home, Brantwood, is a large rambling brick house, covered with vines, set on a hill-side in the midst of a forest of spruce, holly, chestnut, and oak. Close to the walls are beds of yellow poppies, which seem to welcome one to the place. A walk back of the house leads to a mountain where Professor Ruskin revels in geological research. The house itself is a treasury of art and science. In the drawing-room, whose prevailing tint is bluê, are pictures by Burne-Jones, Turner, and Mr. Ruskin. The library is, indeed, the workshop of a master. Books are on every side; some old, with Michael Angelo's autograph, and some very valuable from their choice illustrations. Here are some of Walter Scott's novels in manuscript. One desk has a beautiful collection of diamonds, agates, and other precious stones, each laid on crimson or purple velvet. Here is a circular table, covered with green cloth, where he writes. His seal, with his motto "To-day," is graven on the end of a fine piece of chalcedony five or six inches high. Above is his bedroom, furnished in light chintz, simple, but the books and pictures are worth a fortune. The absence of pipes is noticeable. Mr. Ruskin, I believe, is much opposed to smoking. The Turners, hung all about the room, are covered with blue cases, lest the light fade the exquisite colors. The views of the lake, Coniston Old Man—a rugged mountain 2,633 feet high—and the ivy-covered house where Sir Philip Sidney once lived, are inspiring.

Mr. Ruskin is a constant worker, studying one subject carefully for a month, and then another. He has great love for working people, and is always trying to help them by such publications as *Fors Clavigera*, or the Society of St. George, which proposes a model village and a museum. To this Mr. Ruskin has given paintings and books, one of the latter costing five hundred dollars. He believes, and rightly, that the poor can appreciate beautiful things. Mr. Ruskin is a slightly built man, with modest manner, kind blue eyes, and admirable powers of conversation.

MRS. CRAIK (Dinah Maria Mulock) lives in Kent, in a house in the Queen Anne style, one of the most charming in England. She seems to me to illustrate in her own home life, with her husband and only daughter, Dorothy, the ideals she has drawn in her books. Her first novel was "The Ogilvies," published in 1849, since which time she has given to the world over thirty volumes. She has written comparatively little since her marriage, about sixteen years ago. She is a queenly woman in manner, loved by all for her many kind acts. Mr.

Holman Hunt's little golden-haired daughter, Gladys Mulock, whose picture was admired by everybody in the Royal Academy last year, held Mrs. Craik, her godmother, by the hand, as we walked about the grounds.

JEAN INGELOW and her two brothers live in a lovely London home, full of flowers, as one might expect from one who so loves nature. Great bunches of yellow primroses (no one can be in England in the spring and not love these tiny things that make the fields yellow with their bloom) and blue forget-me-nots were about the house. The grounds, too, are a perfect flower garden. Miss Ingelow is most intelligent on all great questions. She knows American literature well, and speaks highly of many of our writers. She is not strong, going to the south of France usually in the winter, while in the summer, in the London season, from May to July, her presence is of course eagerly sought. Her "Songs of Seven," not a great favorite with her, will be a favorite with the world as long as there are women to be wives and mothers. Miss Ingelow makes her writing secondary to her devotion to her home and the comfort of those who are dear to her. Though she has written several books, she is best known among us by her poems and her two novels, "Don John" and "Off the Skelligs." She is in the prime of life, though her hair is turning gray, and will probably do much more work. Her name is a household word on both sides of the ocean.

CHRISTINA ROSSETTI, whose poems are pure, strong, and finished, lives quietly in the heart of London with her mother, to whom she is devoted. Her own health has not been good for some years. Her hair and eyes are dark, the latter very beautiful. Their home has many of Dante Gabriel Rossetti's pictures, one showing the face of his young wife, whose death, two years after their marriage, cast a shadow over his life. He must have been a patient worker as well as creator, so full of exquisite details are his paintings. Miss Rossetti has written at least six volumes of poems, prominent among which are "Goblin Market" and "The Prince's Progress." She is a woman of great culture and a noble, genial Christian.

MATTHEW ARNOLD, a man of not over fifty, I should think, is rather slender in physique, has dark hair, a scholarly face, and easy, natural manners. He is one of the best thinkers and clearest writers in England, one of her Majesty's School Inspectors, and a hard worker. He has done more than any other man to show England that although she is great and powerful, she yet can learn much from others. Seeing that her primary schools were behind the age, he studied carefully the educational systems of Germany, France, and Holland, and became one of the greatest aids in England's wonderful progress in school matters in the last decade. His poetry is granite daintily chiselled. His

"Thyris," a monody on Arthur Hugh Clough, has depth of feeling scarcely expected in a man so practical. His "Heine's Grave" is at once touching and powerful.

GEORGE MACDONALD has a poetic face, whose every lineament shows refinement and delicacy. His light hair is parted in the middle, as is the English fashion, and he has a full beard. I saw him play, at his own home, Shakespeare's "Twelfth Night," his wife and his twelve children taking their parts admirably. His manner is most gentle, the mark of a true gentleman. He occasionally preaches in London, having entered the ministry after leaving Aberdeen University. His health is not good, nevertheless he is a constant writer, his books numbering nearly thirty already. In 1877 he began to receive a $500 pension in consideration of his contributions to literature—a sum richly merited by the gifted poet and novelist.

The name of FRANCES POWER COBBE is well known in America. Her admirable book, "Duties of Women," is in thousands of our homes, and I wish it might be in all. She is the author of about twenty books, her last, "The Peak of Darien," having, in a few weeks, passed through seven editions. She has written on "Darwinism in Morals;" "Broken Lights, an Inquiry into the Present Condition and Future Prospects of Religious Faith;" "Moral Aspects of Vivisection;" "University Education of Women," etc. Seventeen years ago Miss Cobbe read a paper in Guildhall, at the Social Science Congress, pleading for the admission of women to university degrees. She says every newspaper in London laughed at her for asking for that which would *never* be granted. Two years ago she headed a deputation to Lord Granville thanking him for the admission of women to London University degrees, placing in his hands her much-ridiculed address of fifteen years before! Thus rapidly does the world move. Miss Cobbe is a lady over fifty, stout in physique, with short gray hair, a noble head, and is most sunny in face and manner. She feels the deepest interest in America. She is an untiring worker, writing from early morning till late at night, till her book or work is finished, when she goes into the country and walks all day. She is an enthusiastic lover of nature. Her father spent much money on her education, and she says of herself at sixteen, "With a smattering of languages, I thought I was finished. Soon I found that I knew nothing at all, and from sixteen to thirty-two I read enormously." She does not think she has a great memory, but she reads with a purpose. She seems at home upon every topic mentioned. I heard her speak on woman suffrage in one of the elegant West End parlors of London. So natural, witty, and full of good nature was she that the audience felt inclined to give Miss Cobbe the right to vote even if no

other woman should have it. The beautiful young wife of a member of Parliament followed Miss Cobbe, urging that wealthy girls go to college, like their brothers, so as to be self-dependent, all having a trade or profession. "This is an American idea," she said, "and I hope we may soon become Americanized in this respect." The feeling is deepening both in England and this country that every girl should be made ready for self-support, and be as ashamed of an aimless life as though she were a young man.

PHILIP BOURKE MARSTON, one of the youngest of England's poets, is loved on both sides of the ocean. He is slight in physique, with dark hair and beard, and large brown eyes, sightless. He could see in childhood, but partially lost his sight between twelve and twenty-one, and wholly, afterward, through grief. The death of his poet brother-in-law, Arthur O'Shaughnessy, and his two sisters, one of these Mrs. O'Shaughnessy, and her two children, and of one nearest of all, filled his cup of sorrow to the brim; yet he never seems despondent, and wins everybody by his gentleness and charity for all. The exquisite words of Miss Mulock to him in his infancy, "Philip, my King," seems to have come true:

> "One day,
> Philip, my King,
> Thou too must tread, as we trod, a way
> Thorny and cruel and cold and gray;
> Rebels within thee and foes without
> Will snatch at thy crown. But march on glorious,
> Martyr yet monarch, till angels shout,
> As thou sitt'st at the feet of God, victorious,
> Philip, my King."

Mr. Marston's home is in the heart of busy London, on Euston Road. About him are the books of many of our poets—Emerson, Longfellow, Whittier, Stedman, Stoddard, Aldrich, H. H., Louise Chandler Moulton, and others—mostly given by their authors. Two autograph copies of Swinburne's "Atalanta in Calydon" hang framed beside the mantel. Mr. Swinburne, I am told, comes seldom to London, preferring the beauties of nature at his home at Henley-on-Thames. He rises early, and often walks five miles before breakfast. Mr. Marston has the depth of feeling, play of imagination, vigor of thought, and flow of language which belong to the poet. One of his sonnets is the finest description of a woman's voice in the language. One of his strongest and most intense poems is a Christmas vigil.

Another poet, who does not seem out of her teens, A. MARY F. ROBINSON, has already made for herself an honored place in poetry. Her father is well known in literary and art circles, and his daughter has had exceptional advan-

tages in her own cultivated home and in society. Of her first book, "A Handful of Honeysuckle," the rigid *Spectator* said its simplicity and grace, success in difficult metre, and genuine pathos of some of the poems are worthy of high praise. Her second book, "The Crowned Hippolytus," showed a fine knowledge of the Greek language, and beautifully resets many legends. She is now writing "Rural England," and a "Life of Emily Bronte," has appeared among the "Famous Women's Series." Miss Robinson is slight in figure, has dark hair and eyes, talks enthusiastically and well, and it is hoped, will let nothing divert her from the work in the future for which she is so ably fitted.

Through the kindness of Mr. and Mrs. J. G. Fitch, of London, whose courtesy one can never forget, (he is one of the Governing Board at Girton College, a member of the London University Senate, one of Her Majesty's School Inspectors, and an author as well), we met, among others, Rev. HUGH R. HAWEIS and his wife in their artistic home. Tapestries gathered through years of travel adorn the walls. One room has exquisitely carved furniture of five or six hundred years ago; another has a great bell of softest tone suspended from the ceiling—a present from Belgium after the publication of his book on bells. Here is a large collection of mementoes of Garibaldi, Mr. Haweis's friend and companion in the Italian revolution—his letters, his sword, the litter on which the wounded General was carried, etc. Besides all this, and much more, the home contains a charming wife, whose "Art of Decoration," "Art of Beauty," and "London Homes," are as much enjoyed in our country as in her own, and two or three pretty children. Mr. Haweis is well known among us for his books: "Music and Morals," "Thoughts for the Times," "Arrows in the Air," "American Humorists," etc. He is as enthusiastic in manner as an American, and is as fresh in thought in his conversation as in his interesting works. He is a constant contributor to the best magazines, was for some time an editor, and one of the first to advocate and establish Penny Readings for the People, which have done great good in England. He is an eloquent preacher at St. James's, Marylebone, where I once heard him say, "The sweetest sentence that has come floating down the ages is, 'I have compassion on the multitude.'"

PROFESSOR J. R. SEELEY, best known in America by his book, "Ecce Homo! a Survey of the Life and Work of Jesus Christ," which was published anonymously in 1865, and passed rapidly through several editions, eliciting much discussion, is a man about fifty years of age, with high forehead, gray hair, smoothly shaven face, and unassuming manners. He is of the best type of Englishman, without self-assertion, dignified yet gentle in bearing, and with the simplicity and naturalness which mark good-breeding. The Queen, on the

recommendation of Mr. Gladstone, appointed him Professor of Modern History at Cambridge in 1869. We heard him give a lecture on America in a class-room full of young men and women. (Scarcely a university professor but admits women to his lectures, and the plan grows in popularity each year.) He told of our progress, prospects, wealth, and free spirit, and urged England to a confederation of her colonies into a great United States. They can be held together, he said, by a little constitution. If doubted, look at America. The cheering was almost deafening at the close of the lecture, so popular is Professor Seeley.

OSCAR BROWNING, formerly Head Master at Eton, Lecturer and Fellow of King's College, Cambridge, is well known as an author. He has been thirteen times to Rome, and his beautiful rooms bespeak his taste and culture. He was a warm friend of George Eliot, and told us much of her low, charming conversation, her deep sympathy, and her magnetic influence. Several of her letters, in a delicate hand, show the same genius in thought and expression as her books.

HENRY FAWCETT, Postmaster-General of Great Britain, and Professor of Political Economy at Cambridge, and Millicent Garrett Fawcett, his wife, are worthy of the high position they occupy. Two years after Mr. Fawcett's graduation from college an accident while shooting left him in total blindness. To most persons this would have put an end to a career which gave brilliant promise at its opening. Not so with Mr. Fawcett. He began to write articles on economic and political science for various magazines, published a manual of political economy, and five years after he became blind he was made Professor at Cambridge. Two years after this he was elected to Parliament, and two years later was married to Miss Garrett.

She is from a remarkable trio of sisters. The eldest, Dr. Garrett-Anderson, received her diploma at the University of Paris in 1870, no college in England at that day permitting a woman to take a degree in medicine. She was soon elected by a large majority to the London School Board. She is universally esteemed as an able physician. The youngest sister, Miss Agnes Garrett, is engaged in the business of decorative art. Her partner, Miss Rhoda Garrett, who was her cousin, has just died. Both had been carefully trained in the business of designing wall-paper, furniture, etc., and sometimes made ten-thousand dollar contracts in furnishing a house.

Mrs. Fawcett is a young woman of most attractive face, of refined manners, and as the wife of a cabinet minister has the highest social position. Her "Political Economy for Beginners" is valued highly. In 1872 both Mr. and Mrs.

Fawcett published a volume of lectures and essays on political and economic subjects. He has also written books on "Pauperism and its Causes," "Free Trade and Protection," etc. Both are earnest advocates of suffrage for women. Mrs. Fawcett disarms criticism by her fairness in debate, her ability and her womanliness on the platform. Professor Fawcett has so increased the number of young women in the post office that there are now 1276 employed, and he has made their wages more nearly equal to those of the men. He is as familiar with America as is John Bright, and talks interestingly about the Chinese question, labor, wages, and the best interests of the working people. He is earnest in conversation, generous in his feelings, fond of boating and all out-door sports, and is justly honored by all.

THREE LONDON PREACHERS.

CANON FARRAR.

St. Margaret's, under the shadow of Westminster Abbey, is always crowded, so that you cannot find standing-room unless you go early. And who draws the people? The eloquent and scholarly Frederic W. Farrar. He is about fifty years of age, with round shaven face, high forehead, refined mouth, the whole face showing delicacy of feeling, as well as strength of intellect.

The son of a minister, gaining a first-class in the Classical Tripos, and a Junior Optime in mathematics at Trinity College, Cambridge, as well as the Chancellor's prize for English verse; a master at Harrow, and head-master at Marlborough, honorary chaplain to the Queen, his life has been already a brilliant one. His first books were fiction; "Eric, or Little by Little," reaching its seventh edition; "St. Winifred's, or the World at School," and others. Then he wrote on "The Origin of Language," "Families of Speech," "Greek Syntax," "Essays on a Liberal Education," followed by several theological works. "The Fall of Man" and other Sermons" appeared in 1865, "Silence and the Voices of God" in 1873, and "Eternal Hope" in 1878. His "Life of Christ" reached its twelfth edition in a single year. Dr. Farrar has also contributed to "Smith's Dictionary of the Bible," "Kitto's Biblical Cyclopædia," the "Encyclopædia Britannica," and many of the Reviews.

At Canon Farrar's Easter service, last year, not being able to obtain a place, an English gentleman took his foot-rest, and putting it in the aisle, sat upon it, giving me his seat. This is not the first illustration of courtesy from well-bred English people. I think an elegant gentleman in a Fifth Avenue church would hesitate several minutes before he would sit on a foot-stool in the middle aisle, so as to give a lady his seat!

A few sentences from Dr. Farrar's sermon will show the beauty of his thought and diction. He spoke of the body as "the empty chrysalis from which the winged life has departed." Of death he said: "We, the living, are the dead; we wander in the desert; they have crossed to the happier land; they are moored in a windless haven." "Life is a battle in the darkness; a sailing on an unknown sea. Death is a step out of a tent into the luminous air." "Life in Christ has infinite possibilities; the effortless virtue of a born seraph is not as worthy, perhaps, as the noble act of a galley slave." "All the way to heaven *is* heaven." "Great calamities are more easily borne than daily incongeniality of circumstances."

Dr. Farrar has great sympathy with the toilers of England. He says: "The daily struggle for bread takes two-thirds of the time; very little work is entirely enjoyable; most is drudgery. Many work forty years at labor utterly mechanical, with never a holiday. If this life were the be-all and the end-all, it would indeed be hard not to agree with the materialist, that life is a deplorable failure. A famous emperor could count only fourteen happy days. A man spends his life perhaps in making pin heads or doll's eyes. The volume of life drops out of his hand unread. Do not let yourself be discouraged. If you are a good man, let kings envy you. * * This little world flickers on the grand still mirror of eternity. Boats go down the swirls of the White Sea, each takes the place of another."

One secret of Dr. Farrar's popularity is, that he preaches fearlessly against sin. England has no heartier advocate of total abstinence, from pulpit and platform, than he.

THE REV. NEWMAN HALL,

seems to belong partly to America. In our civil war, when there were few to stand for the North, he spoke to immense audiences at Exeter Hall, at Liverpool, and other places, telling the people that the issue was slavery, and showing the results to humanity if the South triumphed. So important were these meetings in their influence on the public mind, that the illustrated London newspapers photographed the scenes, showing whole audiences, aroused by Mr. Hall's enthusiasm, rising to their feet, and waving their handkerchiefs.

He faced much opposition in his defense of the North. Mr. Gladstone wrote him several long letters, (which would now make very interesting reading) fearing that his friend was on the wrong side, yet anxious to learn the results of Mr. Hall's investigations while in America. The friendship thus deepened between the two men has been strong and lasting, each enjoying the home of the other.

Mr. Hall, in his pulpit, is an eloquent speaker, clear in language, and greatly in earnest. The service is Episcopal in form, though the church is undenominational. The former pastor, Rowland Hill, of Surrey Chapel, was "censured for being disorderly, and forbidden to occupy the Church of England," because he labored heartily with nonconformists, and preached the gospel everywhere. I do not know another church in England where the Litany reads, "That it may please Thee *to bless our fellow-countrymen throughout the world, the British Colonies, and the United States of America*, and to give to all nations unity, peace, and concert. We beseech Thee to hear us, good Lord."

Mr. Hall took up the work in Surrey Chapel in 1854. The present edifice, Christ Church, costing $300,000, was built in 1873. Upwards of two hundred children laid purses, containing twenty-five dollars each, on the corner stone on the day of dedication. In 1874, the memorial stone of Lincoln Tower was laid by General Schenck, United States Minister, and completed in two years. It is two hundred feet high, of Kentish and Portland stone. Its cost, $35,000, was defrayed equally by America and England, "as a token of international brotherhood, and in commemoration of the abolition of slavery." The Hon. W. E. Dodge and the Hon. John Tappan, of Boston, started the subscription with five hundred dollars each, and Mr. Hall gave over a hundred lectures for it, from Portland, Maine, to St. Louis, taking nothing for his traveling expenses. It seemed fitting that, under this Lincoln Tower, at the very time when President Garfield's body was being carried to the tomb, four thousand people should gather for a touching memorial service.

The church building is in the form of a Greek cross, with mosaic floor, and eight fluted pillars, whose every capital is typical of the Saviour. One is wreathed with roses, because he was the Rose of Sharon; another with corn, with the words, "I am the bread of life;" and a third with grapes, "I am the vine." Two stained-glass windows are in memory of Mr. Hall's father and mother. She was a saintly woman; and his father was the well-known Christian worker, John Vine Hall, author of the "Sinners' Friend," of which over two million copies have been sold, and whose autobiography, which we saw in manuscript in Mr. Hall's library, has reached its one hundred and thirtieth thousand. The pulpit is of varied marbles, some pieces coming from Mars' Hill.

Christ Church is one of the grandest working churches in England. It has fifteen flourishing societies among its members. Its Sunday School society has thirteen schools, with six thousand scholars. Its temperance association is very large, for Mr. Hall is a devoted worker for total abstinence. Popular lectures and entertainments are given under his direction for artisans and work-people

in the shops. The Benevolent Society renders assistance without regard to creed, and sustains a qualified nurse, who spends her whole time in going among the sick. A school of industry educates girls in needlework and the common branches; a literary society has debates, essays, and music. Lodging-houses are visited; and during the summer months, Mr. Hall holds an open-air meeting before his church every evening, except Saturdays, where a thousand gather, largely working people. Were this course adopted in our large cities, great numbers more would be reached.

Besides all this work, Mr. Hall has written "Come to Jesus," of which three million copies have been sold in twenty languages; "It is I," nearly two hundred thousand copies; "The Land of the Forum and the Vatican;" "From Liverpool to St. Louis;" "Pilgrim Songs in Cloud and Sunshine," devotional poetry; "Prayer, its Reasonableness and Efficacy," and several other books.

He is tall in stature, not robust, genial in manner, and with a face kindling with sympathy. His home, called Ivy House, half hidden by vines, is full of pictures and books gathered from various countries. Nearly fifty sketch-books in water-colors, done by himself and his wife, are a source of great pleasure to friends. No wonder Mr. Gladstone wrote a letter of hearty praise after seeing them. Here are two beautiful tables, made from marbles gathered by Mrs. Hall when in Rome. She, like her husband, is literary as well as artistic; a devoted sharer in his labors, and the joy of his most hospitable home.

CARDINAL MANNING.

with long red silk train, and cape, with embroidered lace about his waist, gold chain and cross around his neck, and red silk cap, pale in face and attenuated in form, presents a striking appearance. He is now seventy-three years of age. He was a graduate of Baliol College, Oxford, taking first-class honors, one of the select preachers in the University of Oxford, and a rector in the English Church, till he resigned to become a Romanist, when he was forty-three. The early death of his wife, to whom he was devotedly attached, is said greatly to have influenced him. Fourteen years after, he was made Archbishop of Westminster; and Pope Pius IX. made him a Cardinal in 1875, giving him a Cardinal's hat in 1877. He has been a voluminous writer, having written nearly thirty books, mostly on the Roman Catholic faith, the temporal power of the Pope, and the like. He is an earnest advocate of total abstinence, and a hearty worker in all great reforms. We heard him one Sabbath evening, in a Catholic church, when he said in substance: The Roman Catholic Church has never changed since the time of Christ and the apostles. All others have. Some say it has erred. Do you believe the Holy Ghost can dwell in a church, and then

that church err? The Greek Church has separated, and the German, but the tree is the same as before. All these branches are contradicting each other. We are unchangable. If the doctrines of the Romish Church seem in any degree to be changed, it is because the warfare has compelled the church to make a new departure to meet this error. The doctrines seem incomprehensible, it is said; but this is because they are divine. Truths in the ken of human intellect may be error; the trinity, the incarnation, the changing of the bread and wine into the real body of Christ cannot be understood.

"Why are the English not Catholic to-day? They have been robbed by their rulers, the greed of nobles, and a king. The whole of England is now contradicting itself. I hope God will be merciful to England. Englishmen are impatient of human authority, and they are right. What *man* shall teach another? *I* would not speak, if I were not a disciple! [From any person but a man so devout as Cardinal Manning, this would be counted the highest conceit.]

"There is a desire for unity in England, and God will grant it. There is great faith in the *real* presence. In the Church of England, among the clergy, there are thousands who believe in the real presence, and the fields are white for the harvest. May God give it in his own good time; upon us rests the responsibility!"

Cardinal Manning preached with earnestness, and seemed exhausted at the close of the discourse.

A CARIOLE TRIP THROUGH NORWAY.

We were three days crossing the rough North Sea, from Hull on the English coast, to Bergen in Norway. The remembrance of this trip is much pleasanter than the reality. The first persons whom we met on the steamer were Mrs. Ole Bull and her friends, Mrs. James T. Fields and Miss Sarah O. Jewett, on their way to the beautiful home of the former, which occupies the whole island of Lyso, near Bergen. The memory of Ole Bull is precious to every Norwegian, and his wife receives great honor from them.

At Stavanger, our first stopping-place, a great crowd came to the wharf, women with bright-colored handkerchiefs on their heads, and men in suits of coarse blue cloth. Nearly all the people have blue eyes, and hair like tow, while the horses and dogs are of this same creamy color. As I strolled up in the old town, built in the eighth century, its houses quaint, and its cathedral Norman, I said, "Good evening" to two or three girls whom I saw knitting. They looked at me as though I were from some unknown country, and in three

minutes I had over twenty children following me. At first I was somewhat embarrassed, but I soon said to myself, "I will improve this unique occasion to study the language." Putting my hand on the head of a bright-eyed urchin, I said "boy;" he replied, "*gut*;" on the head of a girl, and she said "*pige*;" "yes," "*ja*;" "no," "*nej*;" "dress," "*klaede*;" "trousers," "*benklæder*." I think the procession would have followed till midnight had not my husband arrrived with a Norsk sailor, Ludwig Nelson, who, speaking English, showed us about the town for two hours, and would take no fee! One street was quite covered with fir twigs, on account of a funeral on that day. The body is kept for eight days, and then, between the house and the church, the way is made green and soft for its carrying. We thought it a pretty custom.

The next morning we were in Bergen, the quaintest city I have ever seen. Having taken our breakfast (the table was set with cold ham and eggs, cold beef, cold chop and tongue, and nine different kinds of cold fish—the least appetizing thing in this world is cold fish), we started for the world-famed fish-markets. At seven o'clock, the main *gade* (street) was full of people. One man carried a keg of dried fish on his back; another had a fish hung over his shoulder, whose head rested against his ear, and whose tail dragged several inches on the ground. I wrote down this store sign as we passed along: "En-gros-colonial-varen-skibsrek-visiter-maskinrekvisiter-malervaren-olier-en-detail." Hundreds were gathered on the wharf—women with black dress-skirts, red waists, green or pink sleeves, red stockings and white night-caps. I counted about ninety different kinds of costumes. If a girl is unmarried she must wear two red rolls about her head.

The boats full of fish lay in the harbor; women with rugged waists and big ankles were working as hard as men. The way the people, and especially the women, drive a sharp bargain, is amusing. I saw five of these gaily bedecked peasant-women take hold of the arms of a tarpaulined fisherman, to beat him down in price. He looked as though it were useless to resist, and meekly gave two big fish for ten cents. The fish are placed alive in hundreds of tubs along the wharf, as no one will buy a dead fish. Artists come here in great numbers to paint the picturesque white houses with red roofs, and even more picturesque people. I saw for sale here a beautiful picture by Ernest Longfellow, of Cambridge, who loves Norway.

We rode up the Sogneford (the word means a narrow arm of the sea) to Lærdal, where we must needs go for carioles. The bay is unsurpassed for beauty. Quite to the North Cape, a twelve-days' ride, nature has made a path for ships between huge mountains and among verdant islands. One feature of the journey gave me great satisfaction. My husband paid for his ride a little

over twelve kroners (three dollars), being a man; I, because they considerately account a wife only a part of the husband, paid half the sum!

At Lærdal, where the houses set up on stones almost touch, as though to shield each other from the bleak winters, we rode to the hotel in a *stolkjærre*, a board box on two wheels. The bridle and lines were of rope, the latter drawn through a piece of iron set on the top of a wooden collar. Of course there were no cushions. After a breakfast of lax (salmon), which is the staple meal at every hotel in the land, we had our carioles brought out. They are little wooden shells, on two wheels, into which you are strapped for safe-keeping, your feet pressed against the dash-board; and then you go over hill and through valley as fast as your little yellow pony can carry you. A ride of fifty miles in this clear bracing air is enough to make the bloom come into the cheeks of a woman of seventy. As the little carts have no springs, one must accommodate one's self to any unevenness in the road; and if one is heavy, he is quite ready to sleep well at night. The inhabitants have a pleasant fashion of saying when you retire "Sove god" (sleep well), a most appropriate expression, as all use these vehicles for riding. Your satchel is strapped on a board behind, and a boy sits beside or upon it, going with you to the next station, perhaps ten miles distant, where you change ponies.

Government obliges the farmers to supply horses to travelers at a fixed price, usually about twenty-five cents for eight miles. The *skydsgut* (post-boy) receives a small fee for his services. If he is pleased with the amount, he shakes hands with you, and says, "mange-tak" (many thanks); if not, he retires quietly. At each station there is a *dag bog* (day-book) in which all complaints may be entered. It is amusing to read who is a mean landlord and who a generous one; whose house is neat and whose dirty. When husband and wife enjoy a ride together, she sits in front and drives, while he sits on the board behind and hangs on!

A CHARMING RIDE.

Soon after we had started in our carioles, we overtook Nils Gierre, a student from Minnesota, studying at the University of Upsala. As I was anxious to visit some of the homes of the peasants, Nils acted as our guide, being glad to meet some one from his adopted country. The kind people welcomed us most heartily when they learned we were from America, the land they all long to see before they die. Several homes had but one room each, while others had one below and one above. Here in one corner was the hand-loom, where the bedding and clothes were woven; in the other, a square box that could be drawn out as a bed; and in a third, a huge pile of stones with a hole for fire in the center, and an iron kettle hanging over it. The bare look of the room was

relieved by a corner cupboard, painted in bright red and yellow. From the rafters the good mother took down a Bible sent by her sister from Ameriea.

In the up-stairs room stood a half-barrel of the Norsk beverage, which we were invited to enjoy. It is sour milk, replenished day by day, and allowed to ferment, when it will intoxicate. Seeing that we did not imbibe deeply, the hostess said to our young guide, "We clean our barrel two or three times a year, while most people rarely or never clean theirs!" The taste to me was an extraordinary combination of vinegar and mold. Near the barrel was a trunk painted most showily in red and yellow, with the date of making in big figures on the top. This is usually presented to a young woman at her first communion, and thereafter it holds all her treasures, few though they be. The house was very clean, though a chicken came in to hear the conversation. When we gave ten cents to the daughter, and also to the grand-father, eighty-five years old, in their gratitude they said we "were sent by the Lord from heaven." The wages of a man being usually twenty-five cents a day, ten cents seems a large sum to him.

The ride through the country was charming beyond description. The road winds through a valley made by the river Lera, a foaming torrent whieh has forced its way through great ledges of rock. Sometimes we rode for rods through tuunels cut in the solid stone; then along the brink of a precipice; and then where half-dozen waterfalls wet us with their spray, making rainbows in the sunshine. One fall comes rushing down hundreds of feet, when it breaks into six broad sheets. All through this wild region, blue-bells, yellow daisies and delicate saxifrage blossom at every point. We stopped at the Church of Borgund, the most fantastic structure I ever saw; four Gothic houses one above another, the whole covered with tarred shingles, and rich in Runic inscriptions.

Our meals at the stations were lax and *flad-brod*, the latter made from water and barley or oat-meal, rolled into pasteboard sheets about ten feet across. Once I saw on the bill of fare, that "Tyk milk" was to be had, and called for it, but found that it was very thick sour milk, of a most uncertain age. I paid my money, and gained experience!

ON THE MOUNTAIN.

The second day, as we rode up the mountain, far up the side we saw two or three little houses built of logs and stones, where the farmers take their cows and goats for pasturage in summer. These places are called "sæters." We counted about fifty cows, and as many sheep and goats. The latter sleep in the crevices of the rocks, and make a pretty picture by moonlight. These herds are usually cared for by girls or women, who fear no harm in these soli-

tudes. They have little reason; for a purer people, and one more free from crime than the Norwegian peasants, cannot be found. We bought at this sæter two quarts of milks for five cents, and a good-sized cheese for twenty-five cents. The milk is kept in wooden pans, in a room whose floor is the earth, covered with hemlock boughs.

At another sæeter, or what had formerly been one, we found three ladies from the Deaconess Institute at Kaiserworth, Germany, who had come here for the summer, for the pure air and grand scenery. Flags were used as curtains to separate the beds from the living-room. Pictures of Moody and Sankey were on the walls.

At night we reached the top of the mountain, and slept at Nystuen, a hospice, partially supported by government for the refuge of travellers. Kund Nystuen, the father of the present landlord, has been awarded honors by the nation for saving lives in these mountain-passes. It was near midnight when we arrived, though about as bright as at mid-day. We never knew how grateful the darkness was, till our eyes had become weary with that constant sunlight. Our bed and pillows were of hay; our light a tallow dip in a pint bottle, and our wash-bowl a basin in a chair.

We were up early to visit the animals who slept next door to us, and to gather snow-balls from drifts ten feet deep, close to which grew great bunches of dandelions twice the size of ours, English for-get-me-nots in abundance, and red blossoms not unlike our cardinal flower. Nystuen is 3,252 feet above the sea, a solitary house on a lake, surrounded by mountains whose tops are perpetually covered with snow.

As we rode on, one of the prettiest features was the roofs of the little homes made into flower-gardens. These house-tops are turfed so as to keep out the cold, and the people, with the deepest love for flowers, have made every inch brilliant in color. Some were red with geraniums, some snow-white with daisies, while others were as varied as the richest garden. I never found a home so poor that it did not have three or four pots of flowers in the windows. Their habits are primitive. We saw two men and two women ironing. A sheet was folded on a board, over which they drew a big box of stones set on two rollers.

At Loken we stopped for a little rest, and to enjoy the scenery where Bjornson comes every summer for inspiration. He was holding, at that time, large meetings throughout the country, urging the people to form a republic. The nation is intelligent—I suppose it would be a difficult matter to find one person unable to read and write—and though King Oscar II., who rules over united Norway and Sweden, seems to be a good man and a scholar, a very large number desire a free government.

The Scandinavian race is, I believe, the most polite in the world. From little boys of six to men of sixty, both rich and poor, all take off their hats to each other. Fishermen at their hard work do not forget to lift their weather-beaten caps to one another—a thing unusual among men. I wish so beautiful a custom might be the rule in America.

They are also thoroughly kind. If a man strikes a horse twice with his whip he may be arrested. It was never possible to obtain a whip with the pony we hired. If we picked a switch by the roadside, it was invariably removed from the cariole while we were at meals. I remember two calves lying in the road over which my horse nearly stumbled. They never moved, but looked up surprised that I had not turned aside. Nobody had ever frightened them, and they knew no fear.

Living is very cheap in Norway, twenty-five cents buying a fine dinner. Berries are generously given you in a soup-plate filled to the brim with cream. As the tide of travel sets northward, as it is doing since the "Land of the Midnight-Sun" was published—scores of people asked us about Paul du Chaillu, whom they greatly esteem—it is to be feared that cheapness, courtesy, and delightful cariole rides will become things of the past.

FROM NORWAY TO RUSSIA.

Of course every traveler visits Christiana, the capital of Norway, with 113,000 inhabitants; a clean, compact city, lying on a bay dotted with islands. King Oscar's palace, Storthing (Parliament), and Dampkjokken (steam-kitchen), where 2,000 poor are daily provided with dinners at from five cents to twenty each, all repaid a visit; but we had come especially to see the old Viking ship, one of the curiosities of the century.

We started out one morning from the admirably kept Royal Hotel—what need to say morning where there is no night—and were soon at the University, where a house has been built for this oak ship 1,000 years old. It was dug out of the King's Mound at Sandefjord, on the southern coast of Norway, in 1880. It is about eighty feet long, seventeen wide, and six feet deep in the middle; sharp at both ends, with sixteen oars, twenty feet long, on each side. The planks are fastened to the timber frame by withes of tree-roots. There is but one mast, and a rudder joined to the side, or steerboard.

On a wooden bedstead in the center of the ship were found the bones of the chieftain, who must have been six feet three inches tall, and, close by, the bones of a little dog and peacock, with the feathers of the latter—evidently his pets

in life. All these were inclosed in a funeral chamber made by beams fastened to a ridgepole. Outside this little room were a copper cauldron, an iron kettle, fish-hooks, and the bones of several horses which probably drew the ship to its burial-place. Its prow was turned toward the sea, ready for departure when the gods should call the Viking to his work again. Pieces of boats were scattered about, as though broken when the dead man had ceased to need them. What a strange burial ten centuries ago!

My son adds the following:

THE VIKINGS IN AMERICA.

CHARLIE K. BOLTON.

Many years before the discoveries of Columbus, there lived on the shores of Norway a race of hardy sailors, who plundered the western coast of Europe. They were the terror of the inhabitants, and it is said that Charlemagne wept when he saw their ships coming toward Paris. These men were called Vikings, from the word "*vik*," meaning bay, for the whole coast is made up of inlets, or fjords.

At this time there was no regular government, the country being divided into about twenty-five little republics. Under Robert Guiscard they conquered Sicily and a part of Italy. The still more famous Gauger Rolf, known as Rollo, obtained possession of Normandy, and in the battle of Hastings, 1066, his great grandson, William the Conqueror, took England.

Before this, about the ninth century, there lived in Norway a man of great power and ambition—Harold Haarfagr. The woman whom he wished to marry, declaring that she would not have him unless he conquered all Norway, he said his hair should not be cut until he had done as she wished. In a few years he had accomplished his purpose, and most of the Vikings were obliged to flee, some going to England and France. One of them, losing his way, discovered Iceland, in 860. The new island being warm enough for grain and vegetables, people soon began to go there, and in 874, a republic was started, which thrived for more than 400 years. Gunnbjorn, another Viking, who lived in Iceland, was driven out to sea, and after sailing 160 miles, came to a land which he had never seen before. He named it Greenland, "Because," said he, "if I call it Greenland, people will want to come."

The Norse ships of those days were quite as good as the vessels of Columbus's time. They were often 100 feet long, made of hard wood, with one mast, and rose high out of the water at both ends. In the better ones, the sides were lined with the shields of the men, and the bow was carved with the figures of serpents and fish, and overlaid with gold. They were propelled by a square sail, and by oars, sometimes thirty on a side.

Such were the ships in which a famous Viking, Eric the Red, and his friends went to Greenland, in the spring of 986. In the company came Heriulf Bardson. This Heriulf had a son Bjarne, whose custom was to spend his winters with his father, in Iceland. When he returned from a voyage to Norway, and found his father gone, he decided to follow him, although he had never been to Greenland. They sailed for many days, until they saw land on the left. They thought this could not be Greenland, so they sailed again for two days and came to a land that was covered with wood. Here the sailors wished to land, for they said that they were in need of wood and water. "Of neither are you in want," said Bjarne, and they sailed away.

On seeing land for the fourth time, the men asked Bjarne if it might not be Greenland. "That is likest to what is said to me of Greenland, and we will put ashore." This proved to be the place, and he found his father Heriulf. When he told the people what he had seen, they blamed him for not going on shore, and finding out more about the country.

Leif the Lucky, a son of Eric the Red, then bought the ship of Bjarne, and started with a crew of twenty-five men on a voyage of discovery. They found the place that Bjarne had told about, and sailing down the coast, went on shore. The country was mountainous, and covered with glaciers. From the mountains to the sea, it was flat like a plain of rock, so Leif called the land "Helluland" (flat-stone land.) This might have been Labrador. Farther on they came to a place that was also flat, and covered with wood and white sand, which they called "Markland," (woodland) perhaps Nova Scotia.

Sailing along the shore they came to an opening, and going in, anchored in a small lake. The water was full of salmon, larger than they had ever seen before. In the woods there were wild animals, such as foxes and rabbits, and the ground was so good "it seemed to them that no cattle would want fodder for the winter." They decided to stay for a time and built houses. Leif divided the party into two parts, to take turns in "kenning" the ground and guarding the houses.

One day Tyrker, a German and great friend of Leif, became separated from the party. They were alarmed, but in a short time he came back, somewhat intoxicated, rolling his eyes, and talking as fast as he could in German. At last he told his astonished friends that he had found grapes. Leif was very glad, and called the country Vinland (wineland.) The next spring the ship was filled with grapes and wood—very scarce at home—and sailed for Greenland. When the people were told what he and his companions had seen, they became very much interested, and Leif said to his brother Thorwald, "Thou shalt go with my ship, if thou wilt, to Vinland." So Thorwald set sail and

came to the house of his brother. Here they staid for the winter and following summer, fishing, cutting wood, and gathering grapes.

The next year he went along the coast and came to a cape or "ness." A storm coming up, they were driven on shore and the keel of the ship was broken off. Then Thorwald said: "Now will I that we raise up here the keel on the ness and call it Keelness." From the description this may have been Cape Cod. When the ship was repaired, they sailed again and came to a headland and a bay. Going on shore they found three skin-boats, and under each one saw three men. Eight of these they killed, but one succeeded in reaching his people, whom the Norsemen called "Skraelings."

In a little while back came a great many more skin-boats, filled with warriors. The Skraelings shot arrows at them for some time, and then fled. Thorwald, however, was mortally wounded by an arrow, under his arm. He died, and his men buried him on the headland, and called it "Krossaness," or "Cape of the Cross." They then returned to Greenland. Thornstein, the third son of Eric, went with his wife Gudrida in quest of the body of Thorwald, but could not find it. Before they went back Thornstein died, also.

In the year 1006, Thorfinn, a wealthy Norwegian, came to Greenland in his ship, and stopped at the house of Leif. That winter he married Gudrida. A curious custom of the country was that when a man went courting he had quite a retinue to follow him, or if he was poor, only one to act as spokesman. Thorfinn was urged by his wife to go to Vinland and start a colony. He went with three ships, sixty men and five women, cattle and tools. Taking the same course as the others, he came to an island on which there were many eider ducks and their eggs. When they went on shore they found the country very beautiful, and so they began to prepare for the winter. One day, when sailing south, they came to many islands, covered with wheat and vines growing wild. Here the natives came out in their canoes. These Skraelings were sallow, unattractive looking people, with long, coarse hair on their heads, large eyes, and broad cheeks. The first time the natives came to the house to trade with the Norsemen, they heard a bull bellow, and all ran away. They wished to exchange furs for weapons, but when Thorfinn offered them cakes, they would have nothing else.

In the winter Gudrida had a son, whom she called Snorre. He was the first child of European descent born in America, and was the ancestor of some of the greatest men in Norway, including Thorwaldsen, the sculptor. One day when the Skraelings came to trade, a sailor killed one of them. The rest fled to the forest, but a great number soon returned, and there was a battle. While the fight was going on a native picked up an ax, and after looking at it,

hit one of his friends on the head. He dropped dead, and a large, handsome man, their chief, in terror, threw the ax into the water. The Skraelings then stopped fighting, and were never seen again. At last Thorfinn and his men went back to Greenland, and then to Iceland, where Snorre grew to manhood.

The accounts of the discoveries of the Vikings were found in old manuscripts preserved in Iceland, called "The Saga of Eric the Red" and "Thorfinn's Saga." Thus America was known to Norway, and probably to Spain and Italy, 500 years before the voyage of Columbus.

FROM CHRISTIANA

we went by rail to Stockholm. Each train has a matron whose apartments are next the conductor's. She cleans the cars, and makes them quite homelike. As one can never step on or off the train until the conductor gives permission, the traveler feels constantly as though he were under the care of a father and mother. The cars move slowly, perhaps that one may enjoy the scenery. Each compartment has a letter box, and time-table with the fare per mile.

The country through which we passed was picturesque. The hay had just been cut, and was hung on wooden frames to dry, like clothes on a line. The houses and barns were usually red, the latter with roofs of hay held down by narrow boards. Many fields were purple with heather, like those of Scotland, or blue with the corn-flower. We went through great forests of spruce and pine, which the government does not allow the owners to cut till the trees are of a certain size. Were these in America nothing but saplings would be left for the grandchildren. A portion of the route is so filled with lakes that it is called Sodermanland, because, say the people, "The Creator omitted to separate the land from the water."

We reached Laxa at night, and had our first Swedish meal. As we entered the restaurant, all the travelers were standing at a side-table eating the "Smorgas-bord," an appetizer, as they call it. This consists of pickled trout, cold roast beef, anchovies, herring, salmon, tongue, smoked ham, bologna sausage, flat-brod, and a decanter of brandy with a half dozen wine glasses about it. This is the universal custom in private house or hotel. I think the fashion would kill any but a Swede. After this came the supper, to which each person helped himself; a cold soup of boiled raspberry juice, fish, meat, the best peas I ever ate, with the pods cooked with them, and dessert of wild strawberries, and thick sour milk with the white of an egg and sugar beaten to a froth on the top.

We rested on benches for the night. A man asked permission to sleep in the dam-rum (women's room), as the benches for men were filled. We consented.

At midnight another train arrived, and with it several women. Observing one figure to be taller than the others, they approached the unsuspecting sleeper carefully, lifted his blanket, and discovered boots! A great shout went up, waking all the people, the superintendent was hastily summoned, and the poor man had to sit up for the remainder of the night. At three o'clock in the morning it was bright sunlight, and I arose to investigate my surroundings. Just outside stood a cow harnessed with rope lines to a cart, a man's coat on her back, and the sleeves tied round her neck. Her owner stood by, shivering in the chill morning air, in his shirt sleeves, while he waited for the incoming train.

STOCKHOLM.

Stockholm has been called rightly the Venice of the North. Built on nine islands, some of them bold and rocky in the very heart of the city, lying on Lake Malaren, studded with 1,400 islands, elegant and picturesque homes at every point, I cannot imagine a lovelier place in summer than this. If any one has felt sympathy for Sweden so far away, it is quite wasted, for no land needs it less. No people are more devoted to education, and none seem to enjoy life more. The travel from one part of the city to another is chiefly by boats, and the fresh cheeks of her uncorseted girls, and her tall, handsome men, speak volumes for their outdoor life. Parks full of flowers are abundant, and bands of music are heard every evening in public. King Oscar's palaces, with fountains, statuary and gardens copied from Versailles, are worthy of the royal artist and author. Apartment houses, or flats, are very popular. Washing seems never to be done in them, for laundry work is very cheap outside. I visited some of the wash-houses, like those at Hamburg and on the Seine. The poor women gather up the clothes from private houses, bringing their own soap and ashes—I have never seen clothes so white—and pay twelve cents for the privilege of washing twenty pounds weight. Men assist in the boiling and wringing. The clothes are dried by steam. The proprietors make money, and it is also of the greatest advantage to the poor, who have little fuel and no place to dry their clothes. The plan is being adopted in some American cities with success.

No one should fail to visit the "Handarbetets Vanner Utstallning" started by wealthy ladies to revive ancient weaving and embroidery. If vistors have any money left after going as far as Sweden, they will never have a better opportunity to buy unique rugs, curtains and the like.

The old parts of the city interested me. At the ancient stone fountain, known as the Blood Bath, where Charles Second of Denmark had fifty nobles put to death, thereby hoping to increase his power, this touching story was told me.

A beautiful boy who had seen his father's head cut off and the blood dripping, said in childish accents to the executioner: "When you cut mine off, please don't get my collar dirty, for mamma will whip me when I get home."

The man's heart was moved, and he secreted the child and sent him home, but the ungracious king had him beheaded for such womanish tenderness!

I visited some of the banks where women act as cashiers and fill other responsible positions, a comparatively new field of labor. The officials told me that the women had fewer temptations than men, and for this reason were more honest. They were found to be quick, accurate and faithful.

I saw women going up steep ladders, each carrying two hods of mortar fastened to a frame on their shoulders. Asking why this was permitted, I was told that "Women work for thirty-seven cents a day, while men get sixty, and men have to leave often for a drop of brandy, while women do not." The women come at six, make the mortar and bring the tools for the men to begin work at seven. The latter leave their work usually at seven in the evening, while the women work an hour later to put aside the tools and clean up after them.

Through letters of introduction I met some most cultivated persons, among them Dr. Carl Von Bergen and his wife, who came in from their summer home and waited a day at Hotel Ornskold to see me. So genuine is Swedish courtesy. This is a clean, pleasant home for travelers, presided over by the sunniest Dalecarlian girl, Annie Georgie, who desires to come to America for a home. Such girls as she are rare to find anywhere. Dr. Von Bergen is famous as a writer and lecturer, and so popular have been his addresses to the educated, that the working people have petitioned him to give them a course of lectures, also. I have heard it hinted that he may be called to our foremost university; if so, the institution will obtain a thoroughly philosophical and literary scholar. He told me much of Swedish schools. America may well go to that country to learn of technical and trade schools, one of our greatest needs. The Polytechnic Institute, founded one hundred years ago, is for those intending a scientific profession. In the industrial schools trades are taught to both sexes; to the girls, especially baking, washing, ironing, mending, and needlework. In the technical schools, drawing, mathematics, modeling, mechanics, botany, chemistry, physiology, modern languages and engineering are taught. Schools for the working classes, beyond the ordinary school age, are much encouraged.

Baron Nordenskjold's house is a four-story light-colored stucco, in a block. His summer home is on the pretty island of Trosa in the Baltic. He is well known and greatly beloved by the people.

In Stockholm we had the best guide I ever saw—Mr. F. Malmstrom, No. 8, Storkyr Kobrinken (Big-church—small-street).

UPSALA.

One of our pleasantest visits was to the University at Upsala, with its 1,500 students, founded in 1477. In the railway car I sat opposite a young man who seemed to regard me as a new species. He talked to me in Swedish, and I to him in English, greatly to the amusement of my husband, as neither the Swede nor I understood each other. I had, however, written the word "American" on a sheet of paper, and this made him my friend. We went first to the cathedral, built on a solid rock, to see the splendid tomb of Gustavus Vasa, and that of Linnæus. The life of the former was like a romance, coming from the rags of a miner to the throne; that of the latter equally so—too poor to buy enough food, folding paper in his torn shoes because he could not pay for their mending; walking 4,000 miles to study his favorite theme, botany; at last a wealthy nobleman and one of the most noted of the earth.

At the University we met the scholarly and gentlemanly Professor Annerstedt, who showed us the famous Codex Argenteus, a translation of the Four Gospels by Bishop Ulphilas from the fourth century. It is 188 leaves of reddish-purple vellum in gold and silver lettering, in a silver case; also the manuscript of Frithiof Saga by the great poet Tegner, who died in 1846. After this he went with us through grass-grown streets to the small, two story and a half stuccoed house, cream colored, where Linnæus lived. Here we sat in the garden under the poplar trees where the scholar used to walk and talk with kings. Because we were from America, the Professor did us another favor; took us to his own home where their beloved poet Geijer once lived, and in his beautiful grounds cut some pink roses from a bush that Geijer planted. I pressed them, and to-day they seem almost as fragrant as when they were gathered. He asked me much concerning our "great country" as he called it, and longed to see it. The University boys wear white caps, live in lodgings like the German students, the dormitory system having been abandoned about fifty years ago, have no duels, and are justly proud of the fame of their Alma Mater. Women are admitted on equal terms with men, and the results thus far have been most satisfactory.

FINLAND.

I left Sweden somewhat reluctantly for Finland. "You are not going alone!" said my friends in amazement, as my husband had gone to the North Cape. "Yes, why not? An American woman will be respected any where, if she respect herself." The sail up the Gulf of Finland among the islands was

charming. There was not an English person on board; but a Finn, who had been studying in England, and spoke six languages, was very kind. I could not speak a word of Finnish. How should I, when white bread is "valkeaa leipaa," breakfast, "syoda murkinaa," and woman, "naisihminen." Our first stopping-place was at Abo, built about 800 years ago. The markets in the middle of the streets, the rambling one-story houses, the old castle and cathedral were novel and full of surprises. In the latter we descended into vaults where mummies were shown of the nobleman whose monuments were above. One coffin, lined with yellow satin quite well preserved, contained the body of a young lady buried 300 years ago, shrouded in the same material, I should think, embroidered in green. Her hands were delicate and the outline of her face pretty. The body of the father was covered with red velvet nearly gone to dust, with a piece of faded lace down the front. The coffers of the faithful were replenished by these sights, but I doubt if the sleepers would not have preferred cremation. The next day we started for Russia.

RUSSIA'S CAPITAL.

ST. PETERSBURG.

As no one can enter Russia without a passport, I procured from our consul in Sweden a remarkable description of myself, the color of my eyes and hair, the size of my nose and mouth, and my age and history. I shall preserve this for my grandchildren. While you remain in the country this passport must be given to the police, so that if you show any Nihilistic tendencies you may easily be detected; neither can you leave Russia without a special permit. Such espionage is distasteful to an American.

As we entered the harbor of St. Petersburg, the countless masts and gilded domes of its many Greek churches gave it an imposing appearance. A dozen coachmen for each passenger were at the wharf, dressed in black gowns like a woman's. Their drojkies are like small basket phætons, and the collars on their black horses rise two feet or more above their necks. Though these men will take you driving for an hour for thirty-seven cents, they go so Jehu-like over the cobble-stones with which the streets are paved, that you consider a ride dear at any price. A miserable system of bargaining prevails as in Turkey. If a driver offers to take a man for forty copecks (twenty cents) he gives him twenty, and a similar custom exists in some of the shops.

The Hotel d' Angleterre proved a good and reasonable one, though living is high in Russia. The first dinner consisted of a soup of cabbage and boiled

meat, with cheese patties, sturgeon with sauce of red peppers and lemon, roast beef, chicken with salad of small cucumbers served whole, strawberries, and coffee with cigarettes, which the ladies smoked with apparently as much enjoyment as the men.

St. Petersburg fascinates while it pains one. The houses are mostly of stucco, painted yellow; even the magnificent Winter Palace, the home of the Czar, four stories high and 455 feet long, is of the same material and color. No other country has such wonderful crown jewels as the great Orloff diamond, weighing 185 carats and worth over a million dollars; the imperial crown of diamonds, rubies and sapphires, worth a half million, and the diamond crown of the Empress.

Yet while the wealth is amazing, the poverty and ignorance are appalling. It is estimated that not one in ten of the poor can read. Their dress is usually a red shirt, worn outside the pantaloons, and sandals made of basket splints, tied to the feet with ropes which are criss-crossed to the knees. Their food is largely coarse black bread, which they often share with their horses. Their wagons are rude vehicles, much like a canoe on wheels, with the traces fastened to the outside of the hubs. Drunkenness is very common, especially on the Sabbath, which, after the morning service, is a gala day.

MONASTERIES.

I went one Sunday to the Nevski Monastery, an immense white building with many green domes, and was surprised to find close by a horse-market in full operation; some animals sold at auction, while others were being tested as to speed. For many rods before we reached the church the road was lined with beggars; men with both legs cut off and their knees tied to boards; others with hands gone, their clothes dropping off in rags, or loathsome with disease. The faithful all give a trifle to these, as thereby their entrance into heaven is regarded more certain. The building was crowded, all standing or kneeling on the stone floor during a service of several hours.

The monastery is very rich, the wealthy paying enormous sums to be buried in the holy crypt. The high altar is overlaid with gold, and the shrine of St. Alexander Nevski is of pure silver, and weighs 3,250 pounds. The robes of priest and bishop are of red velvet, or white satin, heavily embroidered with gold, and the service is like the Romish, only more elaborate. The Greek church does not recognize the Pope as head, denies purgatory, compels priests to marry, believes in the real presence of Christ in the bread and wine, and does not permit instrumental music in the service. The Czar is the head of the church, and is regarded with great awe. There are about one hundred holy

days in the year, which greatly hinder regular work. The church fasts cover five months of the twelve, and as meat, eggs, cheese and milk are forbidden to be used, it is believed that poor food, in that rigorous climate, produces disease and idle habits. The church has a large company of wretched poor, begging for it on the streets. The hermit-looking old men usually wear coats of skin, the fur inside, mended often in a thousand places, their shirts tied at the neck with a string, and their white hair falling nearly to their shoulders.

PETER THE GREAT.

Much of the interest of St. Petersburg centers about Peter the Great, who founded it that he might have a "window looking into Europe." For years he drafted 40,000 men annually to do the work, while he lived in a little cottage to oversee it. In this small house, still standing, I saw the boat about twenty feet long, made by his own hands, and sacredly preserved. The bed-room and dining-room are used for a chapel, in which is the miraculous image of the Saviour, which helped Peter win his battles. The faithful constantly bow before it with their candles, fire being the emblem of eternal life.

The palace where he lived with Catharine, formerly his servant, who had more influence over him than all the rest of the world, is a small house, the carved doors and sideboards his own handiwork, he rising at four o'clock each morning to find time. In one room, whose walls are of blue tiling, Catharine cooked all his food that nobody should poison him. Her chamber, with its red chairs and green walls, and mirror which she always took with her in her journeys, remains as she left it.

In the Winter Palace, a long gallery is devoted to him; his hard chair, for he wanted no luxury; his iron walking stick, so heavy that I could scarcely lift it; a crooked root of a tree which he found, and after whose shape the baker's signs and nearly all the bread in Russia is made; his battle horse stuffed, and his two favorite dogs and a figure of himself in blue velvet, with broad white lace at the neck and sleeves, and long pink stockings. He had the cast made from his face during his life. It represents him as a handsome man, with a firm, commanding air. His monument, himself seated on a bronze horse who stands on his hind feet, on a rock that weighs 1,500 tons, which took five hundred men five weeks to bring hither from Finland, is after a model of his own carving. His tomb in the Cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul is like the other Czars, a marble coffin over his burial vault. I saw here also the tomb of Alexander II., who was assassinated. It is covered with burning candles and flowers, while twenty silver wreaths hang above it. In the same building is the fortress where those suspected of treason are summarily brought, and carried to the Siberian mines, or—nobody knows where—nor is one even permitted to ask!

OFFICIALS.

A gentleman who has lived nearly all his life in St. Petersburg, believes there is greater corruption among officials in Russia than in any nation. He told me this story. A man desired a grant by government of a half million dollars. A friend said, "You will have to bribe the official, but not openly." The applicant came one morning to the door of ——— wearing a fur coat in July; there is no hotter place than St. Petersburg in this month. He said to the official,

"I will bet you 100,000 rupees ($50,000) that it will freeze before to-morrow morning."

"You must be mad," replied the other.

"No, I am in earnest." The bet was taken. "One hundred thousand rupees is hard to raise," said the loser.

"What can I do to assist you?" said the official,

"Obtain the grant for me of 1,000,000 rupees." He did so and the bet was paid.

This gentleman said, twice a year, at Easter and I think Christmas, the chief of police is given fifty dollars, the next under him twenty-five, and so on to the least, by each of the large firms; not for any service rendered, but simply to be let alone. If this be not done, their enmity will work ill to you. This must always be the result when gifts are used instead of living wages.

There are few railroads in the country. That from St. Petersburg to Moscow was built largely by Mr. Winans, of Baltimore. When Nicholas was consulted as to how it should be built, the Autocrat took a rule and made a straight line between the two cities. The road does not pass within several miles of any town, and the branch lines to it have cost twice as much as the main line. Such is the brain of despotism! American capital is now building a line to the Siberian mines.

At Peterhof, the summer palace of the Czar, where the fountains seem to me quite as beautiful as at Versailles, I saw Alexander III. twice, riding, and the Czarina Dagmar three times. She is slight in form, very girlish in face, with a sweet expression like her sister, the Princess of Wales. She is reported to be the best read in politics of any lady in Europe, and is beloved by the people. I saw many beautiful girls here, riding in the park with officers. They are clear in complexion, with black hair and eyes, graceful and vivacious, and dress with great taste. They are more like American girls in physique than any I saw abroad. The women of the higher classes are well educated, and seem to take a much more active part in general matters than German or French women.

I have told nothing of the Hermitage, with its over forty rooms of painting and statuary; of the Imperial Library, with the famous Tischendorf manuscripts brought from Sinai, now carefully wrapped in cloth, binding and case; of the Academy of Science, where are the mammoth and rhinoceros found in 1866 in Siberian ice, their flesh perfect as in life; nor of my visit to Mr. Nicolson of the Bible Society, who, with great knowledge, has brought out the Bible in Russ, Mongolian, Tartar, and seven other languages, and has been the means of disposing of 196,000 Bibles in Northern Russia last year.

THE NUNNERY AND FOUNDLING ASYLUM OF ST. PETERSBURG.

At a nunnery, near Nevski, I heard two hundred or more young nuns, from sixteen to nineteen, sing most beautifully. An older nun read the service. Many were hastening about the crowded audience, delivering biscuits, which had been blest by the priests, at three cents each, which were to be carried home to the sick to work miraculous cures—a very inexpensive method of doctoring.

At Cazan Cathedral, built in imitation of St. Peter's at Rome, I went especially to see the miraculous image of the Virgin, with her necklace of real carbuncles, and her shoulders covered with pearls, rubies and emeralds, set in thirty pounds of gold and forty of silver. The sacristy is most elaborate, but no woman, not even an empress, is allowed to enter, as her presence would defile it. The church was being repaired, and at the quiet suggestion of my guide, who was evidently an unbeliever, I pushed aside the solid gold and silver doors of the sacristy and walked in! For about one second I felt as though the splendors of the Arabian nights were a reality, when four workmen, with blanched faces at the awful sacrilege, snatched me out from the holy place! I do not know if Cazan is yet purified, but one woman has certainly been in the sacred inclosure.

The Foundling Asylum of St. Petersburg is the largest and finest in the world. *Vospit a telnoi Dom*, as the people call it, though the Russian letters being somewhat like the Greek characters, you cannot make out a word, was founded in 1772 by Catherine II. the Great. Since then each Czarina has been called the Mother of the Foundlings. The buildings, of cream colored stucco, cover twenty-eight acres, and have an annual revenue, from private sources and the government, of nearly $5,000,000.

As we entered the marble hall, an official, in a red cloak reaching to his feet and his hat trimmed with yellow braid, made us welcome. While we waited to be shown over the institution, a poor girl came with her baby. The only question asked was, "Has the child been baptized?" A cord was clasped about its neck by a metal seal, with a number on it, and a similar one given to

the mother that she may come to visit it, or claim it at any time before it is ten years old.

HOW THE BABIES ARE DRESSED.

We were first shown into a room where the babies are washed in little copper tubs, flannel lined. Some cried, and several went to sleep in the warm water. Instead of a cloth for washing, a piece of hemp is used, on account of its softness. They are then laid on down pillows on a table in the center of the room, a flannel blanket wrapped around them up to their necks, their little arms being held down by their sides, their feet folded in, and the whole bundle tied about with a cord. A white cap is put on the head, and the only part visible is a wee face. I expressed surprise, and said an American baby would die if it could not use its hands or feet; but they assured me that the Russian babies liked the confinement better! They are then placed in iron cots about a foot and a half wide and two long, and each covered with a green blanket.

In the next room, scores upon scores of babies were being cared for by the attendants, who wear red or green caps, white waists, and dark skirts. One mother had come from the country to see her baby, and was holding it to her cheek, with a pitiful look, a bundle lying behind her in the chair. Our guide said she had walked many miles. Each nurse cares for two children, and receives as compensation her board and about eighteen cents a day. A poor woman who comes and nurses her own baby daily, and thus saves the board of a wet nurse, receives about thirty-seven cents a day. Married people may, if they are poor, bring their child for one year. If, at the end of that time, they cannot take it home, it belongs to the State. Infants prematurely born are kept alive and developed in hollow copper baskets, the sides and bottom being filled with hot water. I tasted the food given the nurses, a thick soup, barley mush, and the like, and a sweetened drink made from corn, as they fear the water of the river Neva, which runs through the middle of the city. I used it constantly, and experienced no inconvenience.

In another room we saw six pine coffins, containing the little ones who had died that day. Their shrouds were cotton cloth, scalloped by scissors at the sleeves and wrists, with a pink bow in the cap of a girl, and blue if a boy. For a first name they usually receive that of the saint who happens to preside over the day on which they are brought; for the last that of the priest who baptizes them. The medical room is a storehouse for physicians, and most remarkable in its physiological specimens. In a lower room we saw three calves, kept for purposes of vaccination, asleep on beds of hay. During the last six months over 4,000 babies have been brought to the asylum, of whom more than 1,000 have died. Most of the mothers are poor girls, overworked

often and broken-hearted, and the mortality is not strange. Thirteen thousand are sometimes brought in one year, who, but for this blessed charity, would largely have been put out of the way. In Russia infanticide and abortion are said to be almost unkown, while the percentage of illegitimate children in St. Petersburg falls below many cities of its size.

HOW EDUCATED.

After the children have remained in the asylum for four weeks they are usually sent to the home of the nurse in some country village. Here they remain till they are six years old, half dying the first year. The rest come back to be educated, this alone costing about $1,000,000, annually. More than 500 teachers are employed, 700 nurses, and others to the number of 6,000. About 25,000 foundlings are constantly enrolled. The girls in the schools, in their plaid dresses and white handkerchiefs folded about their necks, look very attractive. Many prepare themselves for governesses, some for medical work in the asylum, or the large lying-in hospital adjoining, while the boys become mechanics, or enter the army and navy. Those who show special ability are fitted for the professions. The property devoted to this work in Russia is estimated at five hundred millions of dollars.

In France, each *arrondissement* has a foundling asylum established by the government; a wise provision, as one-fourth the children born in Paris are illegitimate. In many districts, turning boxes are used, in which the infant may be deposited without the mother being branded by exposure. The Romanists are wiser than we, in that they ask no questions, and thus many lives are saved for the church. Madrid and Rome (near St. Peter's) each has an asylum, to which about 4,000 infants are brought yearly. Formerly in Rome foundlings were treated as slaves, sold, and often mutilated to win sympathy. They were exposed in the public markets, and ornaments sometimes placed upon them to induce persons to take them. The Egyptians punished infanticide by tying the dead body of the child for three days and nights to the neck of the parent. Russia has found out a better way.

I used often to go to the London Asylum Church, where a crowd gathered every Sabbath to hear the singing of 500 children, the sweetest music in that vast city. I do not know a prettier sight there than these, otherwise homeless children, at the Sunday dinner, all singing grace together, the music led by a small orchestra of orphan boys.

[These sketches have appeared in Harper's Bazar, Congregationalist, Advance and Sunday School Times.]

HEALTH NOTES.

From Dr. Dio Lewis's admirable book, "In a Nutshell," of which 22,000 have been sold: "Of the five pounds which a man eats and drinks in a day, it is thought that not less than two pounds leave the body through the skin, and of these two pounds a considerable part escapes during the night. All parts of the bed—mattress, blankets, as well as sheets,—soon become foul, and need purification. If, now, the bed covering is frequently washed, and the bed is left to air with open windows during the day, it will add to the sweetness of your sleep, and the general tone of your health.

Dr. Lewis's rule for eating: "On sitting down at the table take on your plate all that you are to eat, and when that is finished, stop."

To fat folks he says: "Rise early, exercise much in the open air, bathe frequently, rub the skin *very hard*, and eat plain, coarse food."

To lean folks: "Masticate you food thoroughly, live much in the open air, shun tea, and retire early, and don't hurry up in the morning, because sleep fattens."

"Tea and coffee injure the brain of the student. The human brain no more needs the stimulus or narcotic of tea and coffee than does the brain of a deer or race horse. You need considerable water in the system to run the machine. This may be taken on rising and on going to bed."

"Tobacco excites the base of the brain and lowers the moral tone. Let a beautiful girl of sixteen chew or smoke tobacco five years, and can you believe that then her spirit, her moral level, will be what they are now? To say nothing of her lips, tongue and breath, do you believe she would be as sweet in soul as she is now? And can you give me any good reason why her brother should escape demoralization? Gentlemen, I advise you to quit. Stop at once. The first day is not very hard, but the second day is pretty tough. The third morning brings the tug. Now go and take an old-fashioned sweat. You are then perfectly comfortable for one day. The next day you will be in trouble again. Take another sweat; take three or four, and you will go off under easy sail and have no further trouble from your enemy."

"To keep the skin in good condition two things are needed; cleanliness and proper dress. The cleanliness is best secured by simply moistening the skin with soap suds on rising in the morning, and wiping off the suds with rough towels, while the dress next the skin, every day in the year, should be wool flannel, frequently changed. Having put on a pair of English bath-mittens, dip them in cold water, then between them rub the soap; pass the mittens rapidly over the whole person; then with rough towels rub yourself hard, in sixty seconds. For more than thirty years I have taken such a bath almost every morning. This makes a smooth, clear skin."

NUMBER SEVEN.

GOOD MANNERS.

A well-bred man will not affront me; and no other can.—COWPER.

MINDFUL, NOT OF HERSELF.—LONGFELLOW.

True politeness is perfect ease and freedom. It simply consists in treating others just as you love to be treated yourself.—LORD CHESTERFIELD.

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CHARLES E. BOLTON.

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1884.

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SATURDAY EVENING, - - - - - - - JANUARY 12, 1884.

SEVENTH ENTERTAINMENT.

MUSICAL PRELUDE, from 6:40 to 7:15. BY THE EDUCATIONAL BUREAU ORCHESTRA.

C. BILLSON, Director. - - - - - - J. M. LELAND, Leader.

PROGRAMME.

1. Swedish Wedding March...Soderman.
2. Overture—Comic Medley.....Ripley.
3. Polka—Jolly Trumpeters.....Parlow.
4. Waltz—Cagliostro.....J. Strauss.

RED, WHITE AND BLUE, - - - - - - - - - BY THE AUDIENCE.

O Columbia! the gem of the ocean,
The home of the brave and the free,
The shrine of each patriot's devotion,
A world offers homage to thee.
Thy mandates make heroes assemble,
When Liberty's form stands in view,
Thy banners make tyranny tremble,
When borne by the red, white and blue.

The Union, the Union forever,
Our glorious nation's sweet hymn,
May the wreaths it has won never wither,
Nor the star of its glory grow dim!
May the service united ne'er sever,
But they to their colors prove true!
The Army and Navy forever!
Three cheers for the red, white and blue.

CHORUS—When borne by the red, white and blue, When borne by the red, white and blue,
Thy banners make tyranny tremble, When borne by the red, white and blue.

LECTURE PRELUDE, from 7:15 to 7:45, - - - - - C. C. BALDWIN, ESQ.

SUBJECT: "Mounds and Mound-Builders."

SINGING SCHOOL, 7:45 to 8:00, - - Conducted by PROF. N. COE STEWART.

☞ Audience please stand first five minutes. ☜

PRESIDING OFFICER - - - - - - - - - HON. AMOS TOWNSEND.

LECTURE, 8:00 to 9:30, - - - - - - - BY WALLACE BRUCE, ESQ.

SUBJECT: "Native Mettle."

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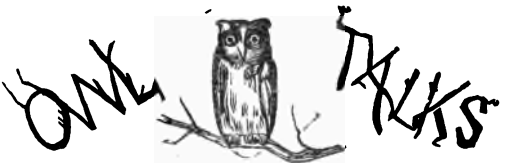
SPECIAL NOTICES.—Eighth Entertainment, Saturday Evening, January 19th, by Mr. C. E. BOLTON. SUBJECT: "Over the Alps to Rome." Seventy-five Illustrations.

MISS JULIET CORSON, of the "New York School of Cookery," will give a course of five lectures to the members of the Educational Bureau as follows: Monday, Jan. 14th, "Marketing and Soup Making." Tuesday, Jan. 15th, "Good Bread and Simple Pastry." Wednesday, Jan. 16th, "Fish, Fowls and Sauces." Thursday, Jan. 17th, "Meats and Vegetables." Friday, Jan. 18th, "Food Chemistry and Table Etiquette." Lectures from 2:30 to 4:30 o'clock on afternoons of dates named. Admission without Bureau Course Ticket, Fifteen Cents, or Fifty Cents for the Course of Five Lectures.



THE busy have no time for tears.—*Byron.*

THE unspoken word never does harm.—*Kossuth.*

YOU cannot win without sacrifice.—*Charles Buxton.*

VICTORY belongs to the most persevering.—*Napoleon.*

THE essence of true nobility is neglect of self.—*Froude.*

A LIGHT wife doth make a heavy husband.—*Shakespeare.*

THERE is a woman at the beginning of all great things.—*Lamartine.*

IT'S EASY finding reasons why other folks should be patient.—*George Eliot.*

THE LAST word is the most dangerous of infernal machines.—*Douglas Jerrold.*

OPPORTUNITY, sooner or later, comes to all who work and wish.—*Lord Stanley.*

LEARN to say No! and it will be of more use to you than to be able to read Latin.—*Spurgeon.*

THE GREAT man loves the conversation or book that convicts him, not that which soothes and flatters him.—*Emerson.*

"I HAVE nothing to pay you with but my heart," said a poor young lady to a lawyer. "Hand it to the clerk, please. I wish no fee."

"YOU HAD better ask for manners than money," said a finely dressed man to a beggar boy. "I asked for what I thought you had the most of," was the reply.

"GOODS at half price," said the sign. "How much is that tea-pot?" asked an old lady. "Fifty cents, mum," was the response. "Guess I'll take it," she said, throwing down a quarter. The sign was taken in.

"YOU ARE the most handsome lady I ever saw," said a gentleman to one of the fair. "I wish I could say as much for you," replied the lady. "You could, madam, if you paid as little regard to the truth as I have."

"DO YOU know, Bridget, that if you wash your face every day in hot, soapy water, it will make you very beautiful?" said a lady to a servant whose face was always dirty. "Sure, it's a wonder ye niver tried it, marm," was the answer.

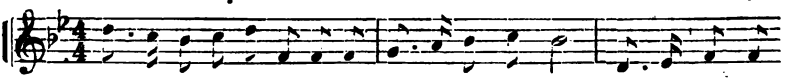
IT IS said of Sir Isaac Newton's nephew, who was a clergyman, that he always refused a marriage fee, saying, in a tone of pleasantry: "Go your way, my children, I have done you mischief enough already, without taking your money."

KINDNESS TO ANIMALS.

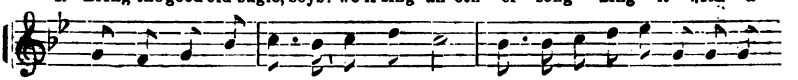
This Illustration by courtesy of The New York Life Insurance Co.

MARCHING THROUGH GEORGIA.

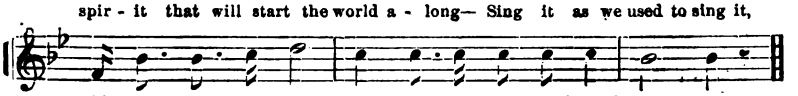
Words and Music by HENRY C. WORK.



1. Bring the good old bugle, boys! we'll sing an-oth - er song— Sing it with a

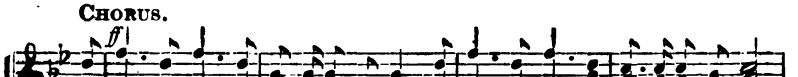


spir - it that will start the world a - long— Sing it as we used to sing it,

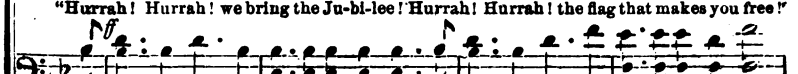


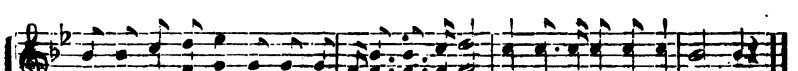
fif - ty thou - sand strong, While we were marching through Geor - gia.

CHORUS.

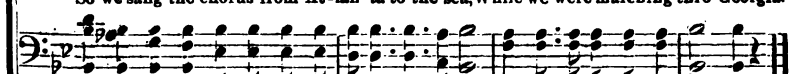


"Hurrah! Hurrah! we bring the Ju-bi-lee! Hurrah! Hurrah! the flag that makes you free!"





So we sang the chorus from At-lan-ta to the sea, While we were marching thro' Georgia.



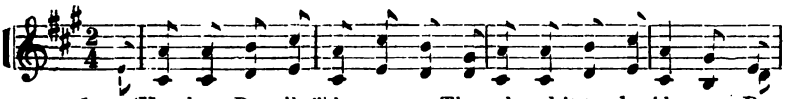
2. How the darkeys shouted when they heard the joyful sound!
How the turkeys gobbled which our Commissary found;
How the sweet-potatoes, even started from the ground,
While we were marching through Georgia.

3. Yes, and there were Union men who wept with joyful tears,
When they saw the honor'd flag they had not seen for years;
Hardly could they be restrained from breaking forth in cheers,
While we were marching through Georgia.

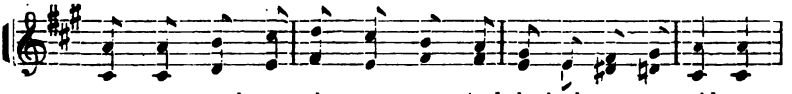
4. "Sherman's dashing yankee boys will never reach the coast!"
So the saucy rebels said, and 'twas a handsome boast,
Had they not forgot, alas! to reckon with the host,
While we were marching through Georgia.

5. So we made a thorough-fare for Freedom and her train,
Sixty miles in latitude--three hundred to the main;
Treason fled before us, for resistance was in vain,
While we were marching through Georgia.

YANKEE DOODLE.

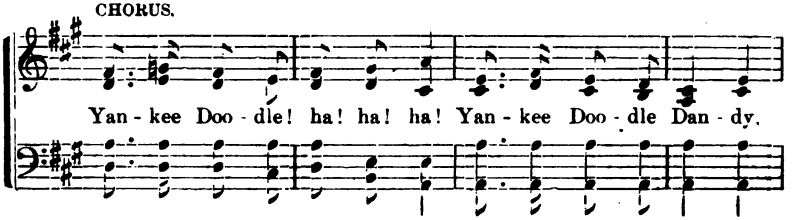


1. "Yan-kee Doo-dle!" long a - go They played it to de-ride us, But

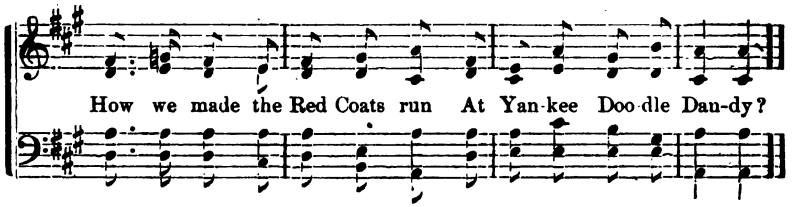


now we march to vic - to - ry, And that's the tune to guide us.

CHORUS.



Yan - kee Doo - dle! ha! ha! ha! Yan - kee Doo - dle Dan - dy.



How we made the Red Coats run At Yan-kee Doo-dle Dan-dy?

2 To fight is not a pleasant game,
But if we must we'll do it;
When Yankee Doodle once begins
Our Yankee boys go through it.
Cho. Yankee Doodle! ha! ha! ha!
Yankee Doodle Dandy,
"Go ahead!" the Captains' cry
At Yankee Doodle Dandy?

3 And let her come upon the sea,
The insolent invader,
There the Yankee boys will be
Prepared to serenade her.
Cho. Yankee Doodle! ha! ha! ha!
Yankee Doodle Dandy,
Yankee guns will sing the bass
Of Yankee doodle Dandy?

4 "Yankee Doodle!" how it brings,
The good old days before us!
Two or three began the song,
And Millions join the chorus.
Cho. Yankee doodle! ha! ha! ha!
Yankee Doodle Dandy,
Rolling round the Continent
Is Yankee Doodle Dandy?

5 "Yankee Doodle!" not alone,
The Continent will hear it,
But all the world shall catch the tone,
And ev'ry tyrant fear it.
Cho. Yankee Doodle! ha! ha! ha!
Yankee Doodle Dandy,
Freedom's voice is in the song
Of Yankee Doodle Dandy?

The origin of "Yankee Doodle" dates back to the reign of Charles I. This popular song was introduced into America, during the French and Indian wars, by Dr. Shackburg, of the English army. Later, Lord Cornwallis and his defeated troops marched into the American lines to the music of "Yankee Doodle." When peace negotiations between Great Britain and the United States were completed, at Ghent, the Burgher's Band, at an entertainment, played "Yankee Doodle" as Uncle Sam's national air. When new recruits are needed, this stirring martial music is sure to enlist them.

GOOD MANNERS.

SARAH K. BOLTON.

EMERSON has well said: "Give a boy address and accomplishments—you give him the mastery of palaces and fortunes wherever he goes. Good manners are a greater power than money or beauty. No bad man ever had more influence than Aaron Burr; and he owed it to gentle, considerate, polished manners."

Lord Chesterfield said of the Duke of Marlborough: "Of all the men that ever I knew in my life, he preserved the graces in the highest degree, not to say engrossed them. He was eminently illiterate, wrote bad English, and spelled it worse. His manner was irresistible by either man or woman. It was by this engaging, graceful manner that he was enabled, during all his war, to convert the various and jarring powers of the Grand Allianee, and to carry them on to the main object of the war, notwithstanding their private and separate views, jealousies and wrong-headednesses. He was always cool, and nobody ever observed the least variation in his countenance. He could refuse more gracefully than other people could grant, and those who went away from him the most dissatisfied as to the substance of their business, were yet charmed with him, and in some degree comforted by his manner."

Burke, one of the greatest of England's statesmen, said: "Manners are of more importance than laws. Upon these, in a great measure, the laws depend. Manners are what vex or soothe, corrupt or purify, exalt or debase, barbarize or refine us—by a constant, steady, uniform, insensible operation like that of the air we breathe in. They give their whole form and color to our lives."

A Nation which honors Woman makes just laws for her. A Nation which has the gentleness of the true gentleman, makes humane laws for children and dumb brutes.

Theodore T. Munger, in a book that should have a very wide reading, "On the Threshold," says of our own people: "There must be more intelligence, more culture, a more evenly distributed wealth, a denser population, and a fuller realization of our National idea, which is also the Christian idea,—personality —before we can claim to be a well-bred people. * * We are destined to

see on this continent a form of maxims more genuinely refined and noble than the world has yet known."

True politeness is genuine kindness. Lord Chesterfield said: "It simply consists in treating others just as you love to be treated yourself." What wonder that the young Sir Philip Sidney, has come down to us as "the jewel of the reign of Queen Elizabeth." The dying general, on the field of Zutphen, thirsting with excess of bleeding, had called for water. As he was putting the bottle to his lips, a wounded soldier turned his ghastly eyes upon the flask. Without tasting, the noble officer passed it to the man with the tender words: "Thy necessity is yet greater than mine."

TRUE GENTLEMEN.

The Saviour was called, by old Thomas Dekker who lived in 1641, "The first true gentleman that ever breathed." The first requisite of a gentleman is *gentleness.* Julius Hare, a noted English author, wrote: "He ought to be mild, calm, quiet, even, temperate,—not hasty in judgment, not exorbitant in ambition, not overbearing, not proud, not rapacious, not oppressive; for these things are contrary to gentleness." The three best writers in America—Emerson, Whittier and Longfellow—have been pre-eminently gentlemen. Natural and unaffected in manner, with hearts as tender as that of woman, they have given the coming generation an ideal type of man. Brave to stand by principle, mobbed on the streets as was Whittier for his anti-slavery words, they have each lived "mild and calm," and pure before the world.

Gentleness and strength usually go hand in hand. It is said of Sir John Franklin that he was a man "who never turned his back upon a danger, yet of that tenderness that he would not brush away a musquito."

Darwin, the great naturalist, when urged to punish a little dog belonging to the family, took him tenderly in his arms, carried him out of doors and brought him back, unable to strike a blow!

The second mark of a gentleman is *consideration for others.* He never wounds feelings. His natural impulse is to help some one. He will not use intoxicants, if thereby others are tempted to drink. In conversing with another, he pays respect to opinions differing from his own. He is especially thoughtful of those who dress more plainly or live more simply than himself. Dr. Matthews, in his admirable book, "Getting On in the World," tells the story of an English minister, who, coming one morning to his church, found two maiden ladies, dressed in very old fashioned clothes, waiting for a seat. So quaint was their appearance, that the men as well as the boys, made sport of them. The good minister at once took an old lady on each arm, and amid the

stares and titters of the congregation, gave them a seat in the middle aisle. Some years afterward he was surprised to find that these ladies, at their death, had left him a handsome fortune in remembrance of his courtesy.

Emerson says: "The secret of success in society is a certain heartiness and sympathy, and these come from unselfish thought for others."

A working man, if he be a gentleman, will not let his wife, less strong than himself, carry their baby in her arms on the street. One often sees the mother carrying the child in England, but rarely in America, where more consideration and deference are shown women than in any country in the world.

An employer, if he be a gentleman, will know how many hours his workmen ought to labor, and will realize how long a coachman can wait for him in the cold without suffering. He will naturally ask himself if he could live on the wages which he pays to others.

A third characteristic of a gentleman is *delicacy:* Ruskin calls it "fineness of nature." It makes a man careful in asking questions,—the fewer the better—makes him joke sparingly lest a sensitive nature be wounded; leads him to avoid subjects where controversy may arise; gives him ease without familiarity; and tact, which is as necessary as a compass to a ship.

A fourth essential is *manliness;* a courage to have opinions and stand by them; a nobility that will not listen to scandal nor spread it; a generous nature that cannot be mean nor scrimping; that is honest to the cent; that believes in a fair chance for all without regard to color or sex; whose word is as good as his bond; whose language is fit for the hearing of the purest among women; whose aspirations are toward the Infinite. Seneca said: "The greatest man is he who chooses right with the most invincible resolution; who resists the sorest temptations from within; who bears the heaviest burdens cheerfully; who is calmest in storms, and most fearless under menaces and frowns; whose reliance on truth, on virtue, and on God, is most unfaltering."

HOW ARE GOOD MANNERS OBTAINED?

By carrying out the golden rule: "Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them."

MANNERS IN CONVERSATION.

Dean Swift said: "Good manners is the art of making those people easy with whom we converse." There is no better test as to whether people are gentlemen or ladies than to hear them talk. We may judge from the fine coat or dress that a person is well-bred; two minutes conversation may undeceive us. The first all-important rule in conversation is:

1. *Never speak ill of others.* If you can say nothing good, keep silent. Some people feel obliged "to speak their minds on all occasions," and nothing could be more foolish. Said a fond mother recently: "My child disliked the teacher and could not help showing it; so has been obliged to leave school." Any person with self-control can avoid showing dislikes. Emerson says: "The gentleman is lord of his own actions." Most of us act as though we were the slaves of our own petty emotions.

Criticism is a weapon that should be used very carefully. D. L. Moody truly said: "It does'nt take brains or heart to find fault." Never underrate the work of others. Especially should singers speak well of those in the same profession, and writers of writers. Addison said: "I never knew a critic who made it his business to lash the faults of other writers, that was not guilty of greater faults himself." Whittier says: "I read a book with sympathy for the author. It is easy to tear a volume in pieces by criticism, but I try to find its merits."

The great need of the world is charity. Would that Lincoln's immortal words could be painted like Constantine's cross of gold, on the blue sky: "With malice toward none and charity for all." One person loses his fortune; we do not stop to investigate; we condemn. Another, in the temptations of life, is overcome; we forget that years ago One purer than we, stooped and wrote upon the ground: "He that is without sin among you, let him first cast a stone."

2. *Never monopolize the conversation.* The person who does this is invariably selfish. Lord Bacon, who knew human nature well, said: "Discretion of speech is more than eloquence. * * Be sure to leave other men their turns to speak." No person can be agreeable in company who is not a good listener. Madame Recamier, probably the most fascinating woman ever in France, spoke little, always appealing to any one present who was likely to have any especial knowledge on the topic discussed. One must show interest in what another is saying. "I do not like Rev. Mr. ———," said a lady recently. "He has talked with my brother and myself a half dozen times, but never remembers us when he meets us. When we talk with him in company, he is always looking about the room." The man thus showed his real nature. Ambitious, he forgot that there were other persons in the world besides himself and he lost the very point he was striving to gain, popularity.

Be careful not to weary people by your hobbies. A man called upon a friend of mine, to present an important matter. The host was so bent upon his hobby, that he used the whole evening in advocating his own schemes. The visitor never called again!

To be so kind hearted as never to speak ill, and so discreet as to know when to talk and when to make others talk by proper questioning, make one a favorite in any circle. To be fluent in speech is a misfortune, unless united with good judgment. Those who talk much are apt to repeat themselves, become tiresome, and waste the time of themselves and others. Chesterfield said: "Never hold any one by the button or the hand, in order to be heard out; for if people are unwilling to hear you, you had better hold your tongue than them."

3. *Avoid controversy in conversation.*—We waste hours in skirmishing over unimportant matters. Few are convinced in the heat of debate. It is better to make a single assertion, kindly, and then let others reply as they will. Do not contradict. Do not be over-positive, or arrogant in asserting, as this spoils one's power. Keep the friendship of those who differ with you on various subjects. A well-bred man cannot be disrespectful to the views of his opponent. Cease conversing with a man who replies to your arguments, "Oh! nonsense."

He only is a statesman who sees what is good in all political parties, and treats with courtesy the man who votes a different ticket from himself. He only is a lawyer worthy of honor who does not brow-beat a witness. He only is worthy to stand in the sacred desk who is as tolerant as he is earnest. He who makes fun of any branch of Christian faith lacks the Christian spirit himself. The man who quotes the Bible to illustrate some comic matter or secular experience is no gentleman, because such a person thoughtlessly wounds the feelings of thousands who honor the Scriptures.

4. *Never make a display of knowledge.*—As a rule, those who know most are most modest. They rarely, or never, use foreign phrases, lest the persons addressed may not understand, and, therefore, become embarrassed. The story is told of a lady who knew one Spanish phrase, and delightedly used it in company. A Cuban present was so pleased to find a person speaking his native tongue, that he immediately addressed her in Spanish. What was her chagrin to be obliged to state that she had used the only Spanish phrase she had ever known!

While one should never make a display of the wide reading which is essential to being a good talker, neither should he let himself down in conversation to accommodate himself to others. This is often the case between men and women. Each talks foolishness or nonsense, because each supposes it is what the other most likes. This is a mistake. A woman can usually appreciate the brightest things a man has to say, and if, by any chance, she does not understand, she will think him a companion fit for the gods. I have never yet

seen a man who did not enjoy the brightest, best educated woman in the room. Many a man has, like Pericles, married a simpleton, and found, alas, that he needed an Aspasia to stimulate and aid him. Some.one has well said: "Talk with a lady as though men were present, and with a man as though ladies were present." I remember hearing a pompous young man on a White Star steamer say to a young lady: "Will you go walky-walky with me on the deck?"

5. *Never use slang or meaningless phrases.*—Think of a charming lady saying, Mercy me! goodness! or "awfully nice!" and "awfully pretty;" or a young man saying "you bet!" "Dear me" comes from the Italian *Dio Mio*, meaning "My God!" Slang phrases show what persons have been our associates. Vulgarity, profanity, and slang are all branches of the same tree.

6. *Never interrupt, rarely give advice, seldom ask questions.*—The giving of advice will often make enemies for you. One person can rarely judge what is best for another. If the project turn out badly you will be blamed ever afterwards; if well, people will take all the credit to themselves. Hon. George Canning said: "Advice, however eagerly sought, however ardently solicited, if it does not coincide with a man's own opinions, seldom answers any other purpose than to put him out of humor with himself, and to alienate his affections from the adviser." Colton, an English writer, says, in *Lacon:* "It is always safe to learn, even from our enemies—seldom safe to instruct, even our friends." Do not speak of your good family or aristocratic birth. If you are well-born, your gentle manners will show it; there will be no need to tell it. Do not talk of your troubles, your servants, or your bodily pains. The world has enough sorrows of its own. A friend of mine called at the house of a member of Congress; the wife entertained (?) him during the whole visit with an account of her rheumatism! If you get no sunlight out of life, do not cause others to sit in the shadow. There is no objection to speak in praise to persons, if it be done delicately aud sincerely. Many think they should never say anything in commendation until a person is dead. Then, alas! all the eulogy will not make a single new blade of grass grow upon his grave! Says Mrs. Poyser, in Adam Bede: "It's poor work always sittin' the dead above the living'. We shall all on us be dead sometime, I reckon; it 'ud be better if folks 'ud make much on us beforehand instid o' beginnin' when we're gone. It's but little good you'll do a-waterin' last year's crops."

MANNERS AT TABLE.

1. *Never find fault with the food before you..*—If you are boarding, and the table does not please you, go elsewhere. It is easy to see who are well-bred

at a hotel. A family of five sat opposite us in Prague. They were handsomely dressed, and their diamonds were beautiful. We wondered who they were, when, lo! the mother pushed back her beef-steak declaring she had never seen such meat before, called the waiter in a loud tone, and grumbled over the coffee. We ceased to wonder or to care who they were, after this. Quite likely the steak was better than they were accustomed to have at home.

Never talk much about your food. For three days we sat next a family of wealth at Saratoga whose only topic of conversation was, as to whether the potatoes had just the proper shades of brown, the chicken was old or young, the celery sufficiently crisp, and the butter properly salted.

2. *Never make a noise in eating soup or drinking coffee.*—It resembles pigs at a trough. Never eat too much of a thing you especially like. A person who sat opposite us at table on an ocean steamer, each day put his spoon into the middle of a plum pie, taking the best of it upon his own plate. Finally a gentleman remarked to him that he "must be especially fond of plum pie!" He appreciated the delicate suggestion.

3. *Never talk loudly, or upon unpleasant subjects.*—Surgical operations, tooth pullings, and diseases in general, are not appetizing topics. Give requests to servants in low tones, and always thank them for what they do. Use your eyes to observe how well-bred persons act at table. The story is told of a man at a New York hotel, who had never seen finger-bowls used. Finding a piece of lemon in his, he put the bowl to his lips and drank, remarking: "Well, this is the poorest lemonade I ever tasted."

WELL KNOWN RULES.

Never eat with your knife.

Never rest your elbows on the table.

Never drink your tea or coffee from the saucer.

Never put your knife, fork, or spoon, into any dish but your own.

Never play with your napkin-ring. Fold your napkin, if at home. If a guest for a meal, leave it unfolded beside your plate.

Never smell of your food.

Never handle fruit to see if it be mellow.

Never tip your chair back at table.

Never soil the table cloth. Remove fruit-stones from your mouth with your spoon or hand.

Never cross your knife and fork on your plate when you have finished eating. Lay them side by side on the plate, the handles at your right hand.

MANNERS ON THE STREET.

1. *Avoid being conspicuous*, either by much jewelry, too bright colors, or loud laughing. Emerson says: "A gentleman makes no noise; a lady is serene." It is a matter of taste whether a lady shall attach herself by a string to a black-and-tan dog or a poodle, daintily covered with a blanket, but it is rarely done by a woman of great brain or noble heart. We once saw, in Paris, a young Englishman followed by four dogs. The street gamins made fun of him, as well they might. Such an one would scarcely be chosen by a young lady as a noble protector in marriage.

2. *Never smoke on the street.*—In England, no well-bred man will be seen on the street with a cigar or pipe in his mouth. He considers, and rightly, that it is ill-bred to spoil the air about him, making it disagreeable for others, especially ladies. It is strange that Americans, who are the most courteous to women of any nationality, should be so careless, even selfish, in this respect. Of course it is ungentlemanly to smoke with a lady beside you, either in riding or walking. Professor Tyler, of Mass., says: "Gentle manners come from the gentler sex. Pure morals from purity and propriety in woman. She is the atmosphere with which public sentiment rises or sinks, like the barometer, and the very element in which public morals live and move and have their being. If women were only sufficiently enlightened, united and decided; if women would always frown upon those habits of eating, drinking and smoking, which lead to intemperance and minister to licentiousness; if women would never walk or ride with a smoke-stack, or keep company with a beer-barrel or a bottle of champagne; I repeat it, if women were only sufficiently enlightened, united, and decided—never to smile, but always to frown on these and similar habits, from which they themselves are the greatest sufferers—they would soon be banished from all decent society; they would vanish away and disappear."

Tobacco chewing is a vulgar practice. No man who has the habit, and finds it almost impossible to break it, will advise his son to chew or smoke. Travelers in this country speak in no gentle terms of spittoons in hotels, and even in the halls of Congress at Washington, and they are a disgrace to us. Spitting on the street, or on the sidewalk, or in the straw of the street-car, is ill-bred. What if women did! We have even seen men spit on the floor of our Public Library!

3. *Never stare at people.*—Women who look one another over from head to foot, or those young men who stand on street-corners, or hotel or church-steps, to gaze, are far from well-bred.

GENERAL RULES.

Keep to the right.

Never whistle nor eat in the street, nor point, nor make gestures.

Never put on your gloves in the street.

Never yawn, anywhere, without covering the mouth with the hand. We observed a pretty girl in blue velvet, crossing Boston Common. While we were looking at her she opened her mouth wide in yawning. Her beauty and good manners disappeared together.

A lady usually bows first to a gentleman.

A gentleman lifts his hat (not simply touching it) to every lady acquaintance, and to every gentleman if he have a lady with him. It is a growing and delightful custom for men to lift their hats to other men. This is practiced in Norway, the most polite country we have ever seen.

Rarely linger on the street to talk, as you obstruct the passers by. Turn back and walk with your friend, if you desire to converse.

A gentleman always opens a door or a gate for a lady, and lets her pass before him. No matter if she be a stranger; he shows her the same politeness.

Take a circular, when handed you, if possible. It is not only courtesy, but kindness to do so. If a newsboy asks you to buy a paper, answer him civilly. A true gentleman will be as courteous to a newsboy as to a millionaire.

MANNERS IN TRAVELING.

1. *Travel quietly.*—Fussy people, who have dozens of packages, who kiss all their friends in the most public manner, who come rushing in just as the train is starting, who are constantly moving in their seats, taking off and putting on wraps, such pepole make everybody uncomfortable. Ruskin gives this picture of two American girls traveling between Venice and Verona: "They pulled down the blinds the moment they entered the carriage, and then sprawled, and writhed, and tossed among the cushions of it, in vain contest, during the whole fifty miles, with every miserable sensation of bodily affliction that could make time intolerable. They were dressed in thin white frocks coming vaguely open at the backs as they stretched or wriggled ; they had French novels, lemons, and lumps of sugar, to beguile their state with; the novels hanging together by the ends of strings that had once stitched them, or adhering at the corners in densely bruised dog's ears, out of which the girls, wetting their fingers, occasionally extricated a gluey leaf. From time to time they cut a lemon open, ground a lump of sugar backwards and forwards over it until every fiber was in a treacly pulp, and sucked the pulp, and gnawed the white skin into leather strings, for the sake of its bitter. Only one sentence was exchanged, in the

fifty miles, on the subject of things outside the carriage (the Alps being once visible from a station where they had drawn up the blinds):

"'Don't those snow-caps make you cool?'

"'No—I wish they did.'

"And they went their way, with sealed eyes and tormented limbs, their numbered miles of pain."

We need the same consideration for the feelings of others as though we were in a drawing room. We were traveling in the autumn, from Montreal to New York. A pretty bride opposite us was reading a book and her husband a paper. A prominent Scotch gentleman was carefully interlining an address. We were writing. The car was as quiet as possible, when, lo! a corpulent, bald-headed man entered with his friend. For one hour he talked so loudly that every person in the drawing-room car was obliged to stop his work. He told of the capacities of the great West; discussed the silver dollar question, if one can call that a discussion, in which one person does all the talking; told of his various exploits—he was a politician; and finally, though the Adirondack Mountains were aflame with color, and Lake Champlain never more beautiful, he went to sleep!

2. *Be cleanly.*—Some persons think one may wear any cast-off clothing while traveling. On the contrary, one is never more public. Friends meet one unexpectedly who have not been seen for years. A soiled collar, gloves out at the fingers, and shabby clothes are not in good taste. It is often advised that on an ocean steamer, some old dresses be worn that one can throw away. If this advice be taken, you will be sorry before the journey is over. Never wear poor shoes, for on the deck your feet are constantly seen as you walk. Be cleanly also about your seat, when on the cars. We have seen persons, whom you would suppose from their dress were well-bred, throw orange peel, peanut shells, and papers upon the floor, till it looked much like the sty of a pig.

I have seen college-educated men put their feet on handsomely-cushioned seats, forgetting that a lady might soon sit there, or that corporations have some rights which the traveling public is bound to respect. Women do not hesitate to open windows and let cinders fall upon persons just behind them.

Thomas Hood wrote—

> "Evil is wrought by want of thought,
> As well as want of heart."

3. *Take only what you pay for.*—If you pay for one seat in a car, by what right do you turn over another, and take four for your parcels and satchels? How few, unless asked to do so, will make room in their seat for a person who is standing? They usually pretend to be reading, or greatly absorbed in viewing

the scenery, when others are looking for a place to sit. If a person gives the seat beside him to a colored person, to an old lady, or to one poorly dressed, in nine cases out of ten you may know that he or she belongs to a fine family, and has quite likely traveled the world over. If people put on airs and are snobbish, they have made their money recently, doubtless, and are unused to good society.

4. *Never talk in the cars at night*, when others are asleep. On a sleeping-car from Cleveland to Saratoga, a wealthy man and woman talked till near midnight, to the annoyance of all the passengers. How travelers can so entirely ignore the rights of others it is impossible to see. On the boats from New York to Boston, men will talk and play cards till twelve o'clock, keeping everybody awake, and yet call themselves gentlemen. I have boarded in houses where it was impossible to write or think on account of the noisy talk of the gentlemen (?) and ladies (?) who had rooms adjoining. So little in this world do we treat others as we wish to be treated.

Be sure that you know to whom you are speaking on the cars. The Duke of Argyle and a tailor sat in the same compartment of an English train. The Earl of Chichester entered and began to converse with the Duke. After his departure, the tailor asked: "Who was that man?" On being told, he said: "Think of his talking to two such snobs as we are!"

5. *Always stand for a lady in the street car.*—Everybody will respect you for it, and you will respect yourself. Perhaps you are tired. That should not make you any the less a gentleman. You are not more tired than the laboring man with his tin-pail, and it is a very unusual thing to see a man in rough clothes sit while a lady is standing. If she be so uncivil or thoughtless as not to thank you, take no notice of it. She will learn a lesson in good manners from your courtesy.

6. *Never be penurious in traveling.*—If a man carry a heavy trunk up stairs, pay him. If a driver wait in the cold, be honorable. Do not let a gentleman spend money for you, if you are a lady, without refunding it. A man might as well get the reputation of being a leper, as of being mean and stingy; his friends will flee from him in either case. A person need not be wasteful, but he should be just.

7. *Rarely offer to travel with any one.*—People dislike to refuse, if asked, but often it is inconvenient. A family took a young lady with them to Europe, at her request. They soon found that she was not a pleasant addition, gave up their proposed trip, and returned to this country, hoping sometime to take the journey again, alone.

MANNERS IN VISITING.

1. *Don't stay too long.*—The old adage, that "short visits make long friends," is generally a true one. Too often, long visits are made as a matter of convenience. I have seen city visitors in the country saving hotel bills, and greatly enjoying themselves, while the hostess was worn out cooking dinners, and ironing dainty white skirts for thoughtless company. It is unfortunate for some people that they live at the sea-side, for all their second and third cousins will desire to visit them. Bishop Jeremy Taylor said: "Men will find it impossible to do anything greatly good, unless they cut off all superfluous company and visits." While it is delightful to have friends, and see them, much time is wasted, especially among women, by frequent and long visits. One occasionally hears a remark like this: "I hadn't anything to do, so I thought I would come to see you!"

2. *Don't be careless.*—I have seen the marks of matches on the walls in best chambers, gas turned on and left burning brightly for a whole evening when the visitor was out, or window blinds wide open, so that the sun might fade a new carpet. I have seen gentlemen (?) lean their heads against delicate walls and leave them soiled and blackened! I have seen people smell a bouquet, putting their noses against the white petals: or turn the leaves of nice books, wetting their fingers, and leaving a mark on each page! It is said that the aristocracy of a European court were much horrified a few years ago by this habit in an American ambassador, and well they might be. I know a prominent christian man, who, when a guest, always turns back the bed-clothes, and leaves his room in order, that the servants may feel that he is a christian. A good example for others.

3. *Don't delay in leaving a house after a call is made.*—Many keep the hostess standing nearly a half hour in saying their last words. Let last words all be said before you arise. To avoid awkwardness, adopt Sidney Smith's rule; think of others and not of yourself. Never lie by saying you are "not at home" to callers; say you are busy, and must be excused. Have one day in the week for calls, if possible. Don't keep people waiting to see you; it is rude.

MANNERS AT A PARTY.

1. *Don't monopolize any one person.*—If a young lady be charming, or a young man brilliant, let others converse with them as well as yourself. Be especially mindful of such as seem timid, or know few persons, or receive little attention.

2. *Don't laugh at any misfortune or accident.*—We were once at a party when a basket of cakes was dropped. A young lady laughed heartily, partly with

the hope of attracting the attention of a student. She did attract his scorn, and lost his friendship. T. T. Munger says: "There is one respect in which our Anglo-Saxon race is simply brutal in its manners, namely, its treatment of the ludicrous when it involves pain. A person, old or young, on sitting down, misses the chair and comes to the floor, and the room screams with laughter. What could be more essentially cruel and barbarous? A public speaker stammers, and the audience giggles. * * If there were a litany of good manners, it might well begin,—

"From giggling, good Lord, deliver us."

A well-known clergyman was quoting a Scripture text in his pulpit, and became confused. "In the sweat of thy—in the sweat of thy—in the sweat of thy bread, shalt thou eat thy face!" So well-bred was the congregation, that not one person laughed.

3. *Don't dress immodestly.*—Every true woman desires the respect of good men; and if she follow the fashions to extremes, she usually does so thoughtlessly. She ought to remember that there is no lasting power where there is no respect, and a woman can gain and hold respect wherever she will. Addison said: "The first of all virtues is innocence; the next is modesty. If we banish modesty out of the world, she carries away with her half the virtue that is in it."

4. *Don't feel slighted at trivial matters.*—Don't acknowledge to yourself, even, that others can feel above you. You are as good as they as long as you behave properly. The only true aristocracy in this country is that of nobility of character. A person who is always thinking that somebody is cold in manner, or intended to pass him by, is a most uncomfortable acquaintance.

5. *Guard against familiarity*—Even with your best friends. It is rarely in good taste for one man to address another by his first name. Slapping on the shoulder, with "How are you, old boy?" is boorish, even though the person who utters it be a college graduate, or an official of the United States. Never wink to another. It indicates something secret, if other company is present, and is, at best, inelegant. Especially should a gentleman avoid putting his hands on a lady. "Does your arm pain you?" said a young lady to a young man who extended his arm on the back of the sofa where they were sitting. "No; why did you ask?" "I thought it must pain you, for I observe it is sadly out of place!" Alexander M. Gow, in his "Good Morals and Gentle Manners," says: "No girl should permit a boy to be so familiar as to toy with her hands, or play with her rings." Let love-making, by all means, be done in private. Public expressions of affection are usually not elevating. Never

"run in" to the back door of a neighbor for a friendly chat. We fancy that our friend will not mind us, if her work is not done, or she is not fully dressed, but she does mind generally, though she says nothing.

GENERAL RULES.

Let a lady go down stairs before a gentleman; up stairs, after him.

Never talk while a person is playing the piano or singing.

Never stop to talk at the gate after accompanying a lady home.

The hostess should be dressed more plainly than her guests.

A party call should be made within a week.

An invitation to a party or a dinner should have an immediate response.

Avoid expense to a gentleman for carriage hire, if possible. A lady respects a man who does not spend for her more than he can afford.

Introduce a gentleman to a lady, giving her precedence.

Never pass before another person, if it can be avoided. At a dinner party, the gentleman of the house leads the way, taking on his arm the most prominent lady.

MANNERS IN DRESS.

1. *Dress becomingly.*—Dr. Holland, in his "Titcomb Letters," says: "Let there always be a hint in your dress that you know the style, but disregard its more extreme demands. The best possible impression that you can make of your dress is to make no separate impression at all. People will only remember that you look well, and somehow dress becomingly. * * Any man who has made dress a study knows very well that ten dollars a year, spent about the neck, will go further than fifty dollars spent upon the person."

Wear colors that suit your complexion and figure. A neat calico or lawn may be quite as becoming as a silk, or even more so. *Harper's Bazar* says: "Nothing is uglier, except it be a Chinese club foot, to our sight, than those cramped paws of kids in which our fashionable women delight. The pinching glove is not only exceedingly uncomfortable, especially in cold weather, but it permanently deforms the hand, rendering it lumpy and podgy."

2. *Avoid extravagance.*—English women, while not dressing so tastefully as American women, dress usually far more sensibly. They would not wear a silk dress for marketing or shopping. It is said of Princess Mary of Teck, who is greatly beloved in England, and is next in rank to the Royal Family, that she will never pay more than five dollars for a bonnet, and has never done so. I have seen the Queen riding in the presence of thousands, in simple cashmere, without a single ornament. Dr. Holland says: "Rich clothes are really a sign of mental poverty," and it is undoubtedly true that those whose minds are best

adorned, give comparatively little time to the adorning of the body. The wardrobe of George the Fourth sold for $75,000, and a single cloak for $4,000. He died in debt to his tailor. It is not necessary, as did the famous Beau Brummell, to change one's shirt three times a day. It always took him two hours to dress. A well-bred person, however, is always clean, and not careless. Dr. Holland adds: "A young man is not fit for life until he is clean—clean and healthy, body and soul, with no tobacco in his mouth, no liquor in his stomach, no oath on his tongue, no snuff in his nose, and no thought in his heart which if exposed would send him sneaking into darkness from the presence of good women." I would never marry a girl who looks untidy in the morning.

Some one has well said: "The modern fashion of dressing young girls in satin and velvet is a poor one. It leaves them nothing to look forward to. Young girls need no aid from the becoming light of jewelry. Let them save those adventitious aids for the days which will surely come—the days when the eye loses its brilliancy and the teeth their pearly charm."

3. *Don't lace.*—We hear with surprise of African men and women who wear shells or knives in big holes in their ears, or have their lower lips opened large enough for a wheel, or to insert a block of wood a half a foot long; we think it dreadful that the Chinese feet should be cramped so that the owners can never bear their weight, but we wear corsets which cramp the lungs, and spoil the health, simply to be fashionable. Read Dr. Dio Lewis's article on the Health of American Women, in the *North American Review*, December, 1882. In his school at Lexington, Massachusetts, girls wore short, loose dresses, that they might be free to exercise in the gymnasium. In eight months the average gain of the waist in size was five inches. Girls who came with back-aches, dread of stairs, etc., could walk five or ten miles without inconvenience. Dr. Lewis says: "Whenever women give free play to their lungs and stomachs, they grow as large, or nearly as large, as men." Our women are now very much wiser than French women, who lace almost universally. English and German girls rarely wear corsets, and are usually in perfect health. The following rules have been given for a good complexion: "Don't lace; it makes your face red. Rise early and go to bed early. Take plenty of exercise. Use cold water baths,—once a week a hot one—with plenty of good soap and much rubbing. Don't worry over trifles. Shun cosmetics and never use powder."

GENERAL RULES.

Never oil the hair, but brush it often.

Keep finger nails short, and clean with a nail brush. Some Chinese persons wear their's two inches long to show that they do not work! Never bite your nails.

Wear low-heeled shoes. If vain, you will probably wear the heel near the center of the foot.

Dress according to your age; not at sixty as though you were sixteen.

Dress according to your work. Young men or women who put all they earn upon their backs, unless they work for a pittance, lack good sense.

Seldom use perfumes. They may suggest that you are attempting to cover disagreeable odors.

Wear neat gloves and clean boots.

"DON'T," a bright little book, issued by the Appletons, says: "Don't wear trinkets, shirt pins, finger rings, or any thing that is solely ornamental. * * Don't wear dressing-gown and slippers anywhere out of your bed-room."

MANNERS IN SHOPPING.

1. *Always thank a clerk* for showing goods, especially if you do not buy. How often does one see well-dressed people ask to see dozens of pieces of goods, pull them over carelessly, stop and talk with friends while keeping the clerk waiting, and then leave the store without even so much as a polite bow, or smile, or thank you.

2. *Never disparage goods.*—"It is a very common piece of velvet. I can get it cheaper at ——" I heard a person say recently in a store. The clerk doubtless felt like replying: "Why don't you buy it there, then?" But of course this would not have been wise. Probably the truth was that she liked the velvet, but took this method of getting it cheaper, if possible. If you cannot afford prices, go elsewhere.

3. *Avoid trading with a clerk who does not treat all customers politely, or who urges you to buy, or tells you what you want.*—A poor woman in this city was standing by a counter, her market basket in her hand, and her child, poorly clad, holding on to her gown. Nobody asked her what she wanted. She was vainly trying to find a pair of stockings, which the little money in her pocket would purchase. Finally, a handsomely dressed lady standing by offered to help her, when, lo! the clerk became exceedingly anxious to assist. A person has no right to stand behind a counter who makes any difference between rich and poor customers. No clerk urges in the best stores, or seems annoyed if customers do not buy.

John B. Gough tells a good story of the conversation of an old woman and a flippant clerk who thought he knew better what she wanted than she did herself.

Coming into the store, she said: "I want to get some six-penny caliker."

"Six-penny, marm! Better not take a six-penny calico; take a nine-penny! Six-penny calico won't wash; a nine-penny calico will; a six-penny calico is sleazy; a nine-penny calico is firm. Take a nine-penny calico, and you'll be glad you didn't take a six-penny; take a six-penny, and you'll be sorry you didn't take a nine-penny. Let me measure you off the nine-penny; it is heavier, will last longer, is cheaper in the end. Don't take a six-penny, when only three-pence more will give you a dress worth double. What do you say, —a nine-penny?"

The old woman stood perfectly still till he paused, and then said: "A six-penny caliker is good enough for a poor worm like me."

"Worm! worm! marm! don't call yourself a worm. I don't like to hear people call themselves worms. We are men and women. Worms, indeed! I'm not a worm; you're not a worm; I'll tell you what we are made of: water, gas, lime;" and he went on with other items.

The old woman simply said: "Law! is that so? Then I reckon the biggest part of you is gas. Now, I'll take ten yards of *six-penny* caliker."

4. *Do not go shopping with penurious people.*—The man or woman who will visit every store and take a half day to save ten cents, is not a person who will make you comfortable or aid your reputation. If, in a grocery store, never aste of anything which you have not bought.

5. *Rarely ask others to purchase for you.*—It is often an inconvenience to do so, and very often the results are unsatisfactory. One family desired another to spend $100 for them, while abroad, in some work of art. They hesitated, but finally made a selection in bronze which was not at all liked, and the friendship was broken.

MANNERS IN LETTER WRITING.

1. *Write brief letters as a rule.*—Few in this busy world, if they accomplish anything, have time either to write or to read long letters.

2. *Answer as soon as possible.*—The English business men are models of brevity, immediate response, and always add, when receipting a bill, "With thanks."

Write as you talk, naturally and simply. Plain, unruled paper is the most elegant.

Letters of introduction should be unsealed. A Persian messenger once bore a sealed one, which contained a command to cut off his head!

Be careful to enclose a stamp, if you desire an answer, except the person written to be a friend.

Never read a letter not intended for you. Such a person would listen at a key-hole. Never put on paper what would cause you annoyance if printed in a newspaper. Reputations have been blasted by foolish letters.

MANNERS AT HOME.

It has been well said: "Of all the places in the world, home is the place in which we should cultivate manners." The boy who is polite to his mother will be so to all other women. The husband who is thoughtful of and attentive to his wife, is at heart a gentleman.

A man rushed up to a woman looking in a show window, and, grasping her arm, angrily exclaimed: "Come on; I'm tired waiting for you." Then noticing he had made a mistake, he drew back with: "Oh, I beg your pardon, madam, I mistook you for my wife."

Fredrika Bremer said: "Many a marriage has commenced, like the morning—red, and perished like the mushroom. Wherefore? Because the married pair neglected to be as agreeable to each other after their union as they were before it."

John Randolph once said: "I should have been an atheist if it had not been for one recollection, and that was the memory of the time when my departed mother used to take my little hand in her's, and cause me on my knees to say: "Our Father, which art in Heaven."

It is said of General Stonewall Jackson that he never entered his wife's room without knocking. This incident alone shows his delicate and noble nature. It is not strange that his soldiers would have died for him.

1. *Appreciate those in the home.*—Genuine interest in people is the key that unlocks every heart. The world hungers for it, and starves for lack of it. Many a boy has come to eminence because a mother or a sister believed in his ability and his honor. Many a man has filled the highest office of trust in the State or nation, because somebody stood beside him who appreciated his every noble quality and had faith in his future.

"To the manner in which my mother formed me, at an early age, I principally owe my subsequent elevation," said Napoleon.

Bismarck's mother desired him to go to the University of Gottingen rather than Heidelberg, because so much beer was used at the latter place. She said: "A beer vat cannot scale a mountain, and you have one before you on the top of which is *fame.*"

Sir William Jones, the Judge in India, who knew twenty-eight different languages, had a mother of fine mind who inspired him with a taste for learning. When he applied to her for information, her answer invariably was: "Read

and you will know." Ary Scheffer's mother, not less than Benjamin West's, made him an artist. With many privations, she furnished the means for his study. Gambetta's mother, in her little grocery, saved enough money to take her boy to a law school in Paris. She stimulated his love for oratory, and was his constant guide and helper.

Hon. Thomas H. Benton said: "My mother asked me never to use tobacco; I never touched it from that day to this. She asked me never to gamble, and I have never gambled; I cannot tell who are losing in games that are being played. When I was seven years of age she asked me not to drink, and I then made a resolution of total abstinence; and that I have adhered to it, through all time, I owe to my mother."

Don't ask for appreciation for yourself. Give it and you will receive it. John Stuart Mill used to go daily to a grave in Avingnon. She who rested in it made him largely what he was, because she believed in his power. He wrote on her tombstone: "To the beloved memory of Harriet Mill, the dearly loved and deeply regretted wife of John Stuart Mill. Her great and loving heart, her noble soul, her clear, powerful, original and comprehensive intellect made her the guide and support, the instructor in wisdom, the example in goodness, as she was the chief earthly delight of those who had the happiness to belong to her. As earnest for all public good as she was generous and devoted to all who surrounded her,—her influence has been felt in many of the greatest improvements of the age, and will be in those still to come. Were there even a few hearts and intelleets like her's, this world would already become the hoped-for heaven. She died to the irreparable loss of those who survived her, at Avingnon, Nov. 3d, 1858." General Von Moltke goes to another grave, because the young wife buried there has been an inspiration to him through all the years.

Colonel H. L. Miller, of Hartford, Conn., one of the truest gentlemen I have ever known, whose house was my home in early life, used to bring his wife. my aunt, the first flower of every spring-time, and the first fruit of every season, and lay them on the table beside her plate. "The husband should be the lover all his life," he used to say; and well he lived up to his noble standard. There is perhaps no more touching picture of affection than strong, fearless Dr. Lyman Beecher, after the death of his young wife, "in a sort of terror like that of a child, suddenly shut out alone in the dark," writing her a long letter in which he poured out his heart to her although she lay in the grave! He said: "The whole year after her death was a year of great emptiness, as if there was not motive enough in the world to move me. I only feel daily, constantly, and

with deepening impression, how much I have had for which to be thankful, and how much I have lost."

2. *Be gentle to your children and win their confidence.*—Usually if boys or girls do not confide in their parents, it is the parents' own fault. A little girl, fond of writing, was given a diary. For days she delighted in it. Finally she showed it to her mother. Thoughtlessly, the latter made fun of it. The book was destroyed by the child, and the ambition was quenched. A child soon learns whether or not it will be blamed. The wonder often is with the impatience of parents, the harsh reproofs, the thoughtless wounding of feelings, that more children are not spoiled as they grow to manhood and womanhood.

Passing down a New York street recently, I saw a woman cuffing a little boy of seven or eight. Crying and indignant, he struck back, and then ran beyond her reach. "He is the worst child in the world," she said to me, as I walked close beside her. "He is your boy?" I asked. "Yes, mum." And you love him?" "I'd die for him." "And are you always kind to the boy you love?" Poor woman! she had broken, for all time, the exquisite bonds between a mother and her son. Treat your child as politely as you would the child of your neighbor. Don't fondle him one hour and punish the next. A boy was asked after a long journey if he had had a pleasant time. "Oh, yes!" he said, his face all aglow, "for my mother was with me."

3. *Never discourage by comparisons with others.*—Some husbands are always praising the wife of another, rather than their own, or telling a young wife how their mother cooked or kept house. "Why can't you make a chicken-pie like my mother?" snarled a husband at a thanksgiving dinner. The next year they paid his mother a visit. "Now," said the mother to the wife, "you make the chicken-pie, for your crust is far better than any I can make." She did so, and at table the husband was delighted. "It seems so good to taste your chicken-pie, mother. It's very strange that my wife can't cook like this!" After the explanation he felt somewhat humiliated.

Tell a boy that he is a dunce, and he will soon be one. Tell a girl that she is fretful and disagreeable; she will soon be such. Helping and not hindering is what humanity needs. A half drunken man went into a temperance meeting in Chicago, which was led by women. He signed the pledge. The next morning, as he was about to drink, he found the pledge card in his pocket. "Did I sign that last night?" he said, reading his name. "Well, if Mrs. R. thinks I can keep it, I *can;*" and keep it, he has, for nearly ten years.

4. *Never deceive children*, and your word will seem to them like Gospel truth. Two boys were disputing. Finally one said to the other, "Well, my mother says so, and when she says so, it's so, even if it ain't so." If you break a promise to them, they will break one to you. If you tell them a lie, they will tell you one. A little boy was playing ball in a room where a mother was sewing. Losing it under her dress, she found it, and when asked if she knew where it was, said: "No, perhaps it is in the corner, meantime rolling it there." Sometime after she lost her thimble. Asking where it was, the boy told a lie as she did, and said he did not know, and then put it where she could find it.

A mother once asked a clergyman when she should begin to educate her child, then over three years old. "Madam," said he, "you have lost three years already."

Like begets like the world over. I said to a boy who was scaring a cat, "She is a pretty kitty, isn't she?" He gave the animal a second look, and then said, in a kind voice, in response to which, she came toward him, "You be pretty, ain't you?"

5. *Save steps for each other.*—Every boy should be taught by his mother to wait upon himself, to hang up coat and hat, to put soiled clothes in their proper place, and shoes where they belong, that when he is married, he may be so manly as to expect a woman to wait upon him. The lives of many women might well be summed up thus: "Kept the breakfast table waiting two hours for the three children. When they were dressed, each wanted a different meal cooked. Cleaned after dirty boots. Shut doors after every member of the family. Worked in the kitchen while the daughters entertained in the parlor. Had no time for reading or companionship. Waited on everybody. Died early, of overwork." I know a family where the wife gets up in the morning and builds the fires! What a comfort that husband must be to a delicate woman, less strong than himself.

6. *Be helpful to each other.* The world has no place in this nineteenth century for idle women. The time was when it was considered a misfortune for a woman to work and earn money for herself. Now, if she can help herself or her husband, it is thought to be an honor to her. Occasionally one meets a foolish woman, who is willing to work; but declines to receive pay. A family comes to my mind where the husband, losing his position, was in debt for his board. His kind-hearted, but falsely proud wife, did sewing for the servants in the house, but would take no pay, as people would think her husband was

unable to support her! Taine, the essayist, says: "There are four varieties in society; the lovers, the ambitious, observers, and *fools.*"

How often one sees a father struggling for a family of daughters, who should be earning to help support him. By what rule of rectitude is it proper for a boy to go into a store or a shop to work, and for a girl to sit at home in idleness, or enjoy leisure on the streets? Carlyle truly said: "The modern majesty consists in work. What a man can do is his greatest ornament." Madame de Genlis said she knew seventy trades, by any one of which she could earn a living. She taught the sons of Philip Egalite to make shoes, coats, brooms, cabinet-work, etc. Girls ought not to marry for a home, and will not if they know how to do successful work.

Parents should help each other in the care of their children. That man is unworthy who hears his own child cry unmoved, with no hand raised to help it; who sees his wife worn with the care of an infant, and does not do all in his power to share her burdens.

"Avoid bickerings," says Mrs. Hall. "What does it signify where a picture hangs, or whether a rose or a fern leaf looks best on the drawing-room table? The mightiest rivers have their source in small streams, and the bitterest domestic misery has often arisen from some trifling difference of opinion."

If annoyances occur, never tell them to anybody.

7. *Be kind to servants.*—The story is told of a cross old man, who, his servants having left him, went to a neighbor's to tell his sorrow. "I think it would be well to oil yourself a little," said his friend. "When a door in my house creaks I oil the hinges. Go home, engage a servant, and when he does right, praise him. If he does anything amiss oil your voice and words with love." No harsh words were ever heard from the old man after that.

8. *Give them comfortable rooms.*—We know a lady very prominent in church-work, who is the best person possible to manage a fair or a sociable. She is indispensable in taking charge of sewing circles, and packing missionary boxes. Her parlors are dainty and beautiful, but her servants' rooms are an astonishment. Does she have springs on her beds for the hired girls? "Oh no; they haven't been used to them," she says, "and don't need them."

"Does she have a pretty but inexpensive curtain at the window, or simple pictures on the walls?"

"No, for they have doubtless come from plain homes, and don't mind such things."

"Do they have gas or a good lamp to read by?"

"No, only a candle, because they waste gas."

The preserves are usually removed from the table after the family have eaten, because servants are not prudent in the use of them; and the sugar and the like are under lock and key, because she thinks honesty may be counted among the lost arts. This lady's servants never stay long with her, and never speak very highly of her when they go away.

Never question servants about other families. Pay living wages. Let directions be as simple as possible and never confuse by telling the same thing over and over. Remember that they get tired, like yourself, and that a little vacation is as refreshing to them as to you.

1. *Be calm and self-possessed.*—Lord Byron, who prided himself upon his influence with women, said: "I find myself adoring beautiful, calm women who cannot be flirted with." Those persons who are always in a hurry, and flustered, accomplish less than any others. Only that person makes life a success who can do the most important things quickly, energetically and calmly.

2. *Make even a child happy, if possible.*—"Give me a ride, mister," said a poorly-dressed boy to the passers-by on Euclid avenue. Finally an old man in an old wagon stopped, and the ragged child clambered upon the seat. His face shone with delight. The old man had done a kindly act worth copying.

A lady went into our Public Library with her arms full of books. A youth held the door open for her. "You are very kind," she said. "I thank you for your help." At first he seemed half amazed to be appreciated, then his face brightened as he hastened to open the inside door.

The remembrance of a tender word will last long after you are in your grave. A little ragged boot-black fell on the icy streets of Chicago one winter's day. A cheery young lady passing, said, as she helped him up: "Did you hurt you?" His whole face beamed as, after her departure, he said to his companions: "I'd like to fall a dozen times if I could have *her* speak to me like that."

A harsh voice in a woman is like a discord in the sweetest music. One can easily get into complaining and dissatisfied tones. Have a sunny face; and nothing will do this save genuine kindness in the heart. Every girl ought to make it possible to have people say of her: "She brightens every life she touches." If you never do aught else in life, bring sunshine into every heart you meet.

A colored man, who was always at Sunday-school, was asked if he was a member. He answered, "No!" "A teacher?" "No!" "The superintendent?" "No! I just sits before all the people, and smiles on 'em." Would there were more such.

There is no greater human power than the tenderness of woman. If you can minister to some one in sickness, lessen somebody's distress, or put a flower in some poor home, you have done a thing you will always be glad to think of. You will be remembered, and a woman asks no grander monument than to live in hearts.

Not far from my home years ago was the plain cottage of an Irish woman and her only son, a brave young fellow, dying of consumption contracted in the war. One day in my visits to him I carried him some lovely red roses. The next time I went, the mother said: "He never let the roses go out of his hand, miss. He held 'em when he died, and the last he ever said was: "Give my blessin' to the young lady for bringin' the flowers.'" And the desolate mother buried them with him, as the most precious thing he possessed.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS.

Rarely borrow books. Too often the memory of those who borrow is short. They forget to return them.

A friend of mine lent a year's magazines to a person who desired them. He was at last obliged to send for them, and finding them too soiled and dog-eared to be bound, bought a new set!

Avoid borrowing money if possible. The story is told of a woman who came to borrow tea of her Quaker neighbor. She was sent into the pantry to get it. "The box is empty," said she. "If thee had returned what thee has borrowed, it would be full," was the frank reply.

In presenting a book to a friend, do not write your name in it, unless requested. Enclose your card with it.

To play a practical joke is never considered good breeding.

Never play the piano in a public parlor, unless requested to do so. I was receiving a call in Washington from a lady whom I desired to honor. What was my amazement to have a young person, one of the boarders, come in, seat herself, and play dancing tunes during the entire call!

Do not take it for granted that a man is in love with you, because he pays you some attention. On the other hand, do not be so blind as not to see if he be especially interested, so as to avoid wounding him by a refusal.

Some one has said: "It is impossible to be polite without cultivating a good memory. The self-absorbed person forgets the name of his next door neighbor, recalls unlucky topics, speaks of the dead as if they were still living, and talks of persons in their hearing."

"It is not well," says an old proverb, "to talk of the gallows to a man whose father was hanged."

Mr. A—— asked a well known lawyer to go with him one very cold night, five miles into the country, to make a speech. The lawyer could not spare the time, but broke another engagement to accommodate his friend. When they arrived, Mr. A—— was requested to speak first. He became so interested in his own remarks that he used the whole evening, quite forgetting the lawyer. The latter never accepted another invitation from Mr. A——.

If asked your opinion of another, give it cautiously, and be careful to whom you give it.

Never leave a lecture or concert before it is finished. It is rude to the speaker or singer. Equally ill-bred is it to talk during the entertainment.

No refined person will send a comic valentine, for fear of wounding feelings.

RULES WRITTEN BY GEORGE WASHINGTON AT FOURTEEN YEARS OF AGE.

Show not yourself glad at the misfortunes of another, though he be your enemy.

Be not hasty to believe flying reports to the disparagement of any.

Associate yourself with men of good quality, if you esteem your own reputation, for it is better to be alone than in bad company.

Be not angry at table, whatever may happen; and, if you have reason to be so, show it not. Put on a cheerful countenance, especially if there be strangers, for good humor makes one dish of meat a feast.

Labor to keep alive in your breast that little spark of celestial fire, called conscience.

MANNERS IN WASHINGTON.

Condensed from "Social Life in Washington," by Mrs. Dahlgren.

The President and his wife, standing at the head of the Nation, receive all calls without being expected to return any. In conversation he is addressed as "Mr. President." At his receptions any person may attend. You give your name to an usher, and are announced, and then introduced by some one designated for the purpose.

Next in honor to the President comes the Vice President, the Speaker of the House who is usually addressed as Mr. Speaker, and the Chief Justice. All these receive the first visits from all others. The Cabinet officers are addressed as Mr. Secretary, and the Senators as Mr. Senator. Members of the House of Representatives and their wives are expected to make their first visit upon Senators, the Cabinet, etc. Citizens of Washington make the first visit to strangers.

At a reception, leave your card with the usher in the hall. At other times if the person called upon is not at home, turn down the right-hand upper corner

of the card to indicate that you came in person; and if the visit is intended for the various members of the family, you either give several cards, or fold over the entire right side. After a first call, it is courtesy to return it in three days. The usual calling hours are from two until five. An evening visit implies some degree of social acquaintance, and should rarely be made as a first call. If you are making a call of condolence turn down the left-hand lower corner of the card.

The wives of Government officials have specified days for receiving calls, which is the better plan for all ladies, as it saves time.

AT DINNER.

An invitation to dinner should be accepted or declined at once, that a hostess may know for how many to provide. A verbal message should never be returned to a written one. Be prompt to come at the hour named. A dinner should never wait more than fifteen or twenty minutes, as it is thereby spoiled for the other guests. When dinner is ready the host should take on his left arm, the lady who is to be especially honored, the hostess leaving the drawing-room last, with the gentlemen of the first official distinction present. The guests remain standing till the hostess seats herself. Then the ladies take their seats, followed by the gentlemen. The host and hostess sit at the center of the table, with their guests on either side of them, each plate being marked with the name of the expected guest on a card. On leaving the table the hostess rises and leads the way to the drawing-room.

MANNERS IN SPEECH.

"If a gentleman be to study any language, it ought to be that of his own country.—*Locke.*

The following are some of the improprieties of speech noted by Alfred Ayres in his "Verbalist," Dr. Mathews in "Words: their Use and Abuse," Richard Grant White and others:

"*Afterward*" is preferred to "*afterwards.*"

"Come *and* see me," should be "Come *to* see me."

"Not *as* good as the last," should read "not *so* good."

Use "*author*," not "*authoress*," any more than walkeress and talkeress.

"*Beside*," at the side of; "*besides*," over and above.

"They are *both* alike;" "*both*" is redundant.

"They return *back;*" "*back*" is superfluous.

"*Begin*" is better than "*commence.*"

"She is the *better* of the two;" not "*best.*"

"*Conversationist*" is better than "*conversationalist.*"

"The *first two* verses;" not "the *two first* verses."
Use "*give*" instead of "*donate*." "She has *gone*," not "*went*."
"I have *got* a book," should be, "I have a book."
There is no such word as "*gents*" any more than "*ladies*."
"*Hadn't ought*" should be "*ought not*."
"I *learn* him," should be, "I *teach* him."
"*Like* I do," should be, "*as* I do."
"I must *lie* down;" not "I must *lay* down."
Do not say you "*love*" food; say "*like*."
"*Preventive*," not "*preventative*."
"A *pair of new* gloves;" not a "*new pair*."
Do not say "*swap*;" say "*exchange*."
We "*set*" a hen, and a hen "*sits*" on eggs.
"We smell a thing;" not "smell *of* it." "*Two*" is better than "*couple*."
"*Those* things;" not "*them* things." "*That* kind;" not "*those* kind."
Not "*stop*" at a hotel, but "*stay*."
"*Spoonfuls*," not "*spoonsful*." "*Whom* do you mean?" not "*who*."

DERIVATION OF NAMES OF MONTHS.

JANUARY, from the Roman *Janus*, who was the porter of heaven, and the god of the sun. The temple of Janus, which was really a covered passage or gate at Rome, was left open in war as a symbol that the god had gone out to assist the Roman arms, while it was always shut in time of peace. On New Year's day, which was the festival of the god Janus, the Romans gave presents to one another.

FEBRUARY, comes either from the Latin, *februare*, signifying to purify, because the Roman's had a custom of general purification in the latter part of this month, or from the Roman divinity, *Februus*, the god of the lower world.

MARCH was named for Mars, the Roman god of war. This was the first month in the early Roman calendar.

APRIL, derived probably from *aperire*, to open, because spring and the buds generally open in this month. All Fool's Day is traced back to the Hindoos; and some even say to the mistake Noah made in sending the dove out of the ark before the water had abated.

MAY is derived from a feminine divinity worshiped at Rome, to whom sacrifices were offered on the first of May. The celebration of May-day probably comes from the Roman festival in honor of *Flora*.

JUNE, the month of roses, is believed to come from Juno, worshiped at Rome as the queen of heaven.

JULY derives its name from Julius Cæsar, who was born on the 12th of this month. The change from *Quintilis* to July was proposed by Mark Antony.

AUGUST, so called from the Roman Emperor, Augustus. It was formerly called Sextilis.

SEPTEMBER, from the Latin, *septem*, seven, because this was the seventh month, when the year began with March.

OCTOBER, comes from the Latin, *octo*, eight.

NOVEMBER, from Latin, *novem*, nine. DECEMBER, from Latin, *decem*, ten.

INTERESTING DATES.

America discovered by Northmen, 985.

Balloon ascension first made near Lyons, 1783.

Cotton gin invented by Eli Whitney, 1793.

Electric Light invented by two Russians, 1874.

Envelopes first used for letters, 1839.

Gas first used for illuminating, 1792, Cornwall, England; in United States, Boston, 1822.

Gold first discovered in California, 1848.

Iron steamships first used in Great Britain, 1843.

Kerosene first used for illuminating, 1826.

Knives first used in England, about 1550.

Lightning rods first used by Franklin, 1752.

Lincoln assassinated, April 19, 1865.

Magna Charta signed, 1215. Matches, friction, 1829.

Missouri Compromise, restricting slavery to south of 36 deg., 30 min., passed 1820; repealed 1854.

Needles first came into use in 1545.

Newspapers, first authentic, 1494; first daily, *Frankfort Gazette*, 1615; first, continuously published in the United States, *Boston News Letter*, 1702.

Omnibuses first used in New York, 1830.

Paper made by Chinese, from silk, 120 B. C., from rags, 1065.

Pencils, modern, in England, 1565. Pen, steel, first made, 1803.

Photographs, in England, 1802. Pianos, in Italy, about 1710.

Pins, in England, 1450; in America, machine made, 1832.

Post Offices established, 1516; stamp first used in England, 1840; in United States, 1847.

Printing, first Bible, 1456.

Railroads, passenger, first opened in England, 1825. Sleeping cars, 1858.

Telegraph, first electric, Eng., 1835. Telephone, by A. Graham Bell, 1876.

Telescope, invented, 1608. Watches, Nuremburg, 1677.

NUMBER EIGHT.

Ancient Republics.

Freiheit ist von Gott.
Liberty is from God.

None can love freedom heartily but good men; the rest love not freedom, but license, which never hath more scope or more indulgence than under tyrants.

MILTON.

EDITED BY
CHARLES E BOLTON

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CLEVELAND, OHIO.
1884.

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SATURDAY EVENING, - - - - - - - JANUARY 19, 1884.

EIGHTH ENTERTAINMENT.

MUSICAL PRELUDE, from 6:40 to 7:15. BY THE EDUCATIONAL BUREAU ORCHESTRA.

C. BILLSON, Director. - - - - - J. M. LELAND, Leader.

PROGRAMME.

1. March—Bolton's Educational Bureau...Leland.
2. Overture—Le Chevalier Breton..A. Herrmann.
3. Champaigner Polka...A.Parlow.
4. Grand Medley.....Kunkel.

MARCHING THROUGH GEORGIA, - - - - - - BY THE AUDIENCE.

Bring the good old bugle, boys! we'll sing another song—
Sing it with a spirit that will start the world along—
Sing it as we used to sing it, fifty thousand strong,
While we were marching through Georgia.

CHORUS—
Hurrah! Hurrah! we bring the Jubilee! Hurrah! Hurrah! the flag that makes you free!
So we sang the chorus from Atlanta to the sea, While we were marching thro' Georgia.

LECTURE PRELUDE, from 7:15 to 7:45, - - - - - REV. N. S. RULISON.

SUBJECT: "Marriage."

SINGING SCHOOL, 7:45 to 8:00, - - Conducted by PROF. N. COE STEWART.

☞ Audience please stand first five minutes. ☜

PRESIDING OFFICER, - - - - - - - - - RT. REV. G. T. BEDELL, D D.

LECTURE, 8:00 to 9:30, - - - - - - - BY MR. C. E. BOLTON.

SUBJECT: "Over the Alps to Rome" (75 Illustrations.)

PART FIRST.—Fontainebleau, the Home of Napoleon and Josephine. Extensive Parks. The Empress Crowned. A Royal Apartment. A Vacant Throne. Romantic Gallery. Elephant's Fountain. Geneva, the Home of Calvin. Garden on the Lake. Vale of Chamouny. Twenty Miles of Ice. Climbing Mt. Blanc. Mule Huts. Up 15,731 Feet. St Bernard's Hospice. A Band of Brothers. A Noble Animal. Baths of Leuk. Ride to Interlachen. Jungfrau. Perpetual Snow. Swiss Chalet. How the People Live. Staubbach. "A Heaven-born Stream." Brunig Pass—Canopy of Rock. Lucerne and Pilatus. Thorwaldsen's Lion. Bold Engineering. Rigi Railway. Axenstrasse Tunnel. The Story of Tell and Gessler. Munich. Glyptothek and New Pinacothek, Treasure-houses of Art. Hall of Fame and Bavaria. Vienna. St. Stephen's Cathedral. Canova's Masterpiece Schoenbrunn Palace. Basin and Obelisk. Austrian Empress. Venice in the Sea. The Palace of the Doges. The Winged Lion. Giant and Golden Stairways. Bridge of Sighs. St. Mark's Place and Church. Black Gondolas. Como Fisher Boy.

MUSIC.

PART SECOND.—Milan Cathedral. Forest of Pinnacles. Pisa's Echo. Campo Santo Leaning Tower. Florence, the City of Flowers and Art. Duomo, and Giotto's Masterpiece Marble Facade. Ghiberti's "Gates of Paradise." Florentine Boar. Venus de Medici, the Gem of the Uffizi. Raphael's Holy Family. Bay and Park of Naples. Pompeii, the Buried City. Home of Wealth. Amphitheatre, seating 20,000. Rome, the Eternal City. St. Peter's, costing $50,000,000. Comparative Heights. Vatican—the Pope's Residence. A Fine Perspective. Apollo Belvidere. Ariadne of Vatican. Raphael's Greatest Work. Interior of St. Paul's. Moses. Tiber and Hadrian's Tomb. The Capitol on Capitoline Hill. Trajan's Column. Arch of the Christian Emperor. Gladiatorial Combats, and Martyrdoms in the Coliseum.

MUSIC.

SPECIAL NOTICES.—Ninth Entertainment, Saturday Evening, January 26th, a unique Concert by the ORIGINAL FISK JUBILEE SINGERS. Tenth Entertainment, February 3rd Great Debate on Woman Suffrage. Mrs. MARY A. LIVERMORE *vs.* Prof. VAN BUREN DENSLOW.

NEVER confide your secrets to pages.—*Calderon.*

A SUCCESSFUL career has been full of blunders.—*Charles Buxton.*

NOTHING is politically right, which is morally wrong.—*Daniel O'Connell.*

PURPOSES, like eggs, unless hatched into action, will run into decay.—*Smiles.*

SOW good services; sweet remembrance will grow from them.—*Madam de Stael.*

THE longer we dwell on our misfortunes, the greater is their power to harm us.—*Voltaire.*

WHEN God would educate a man, He compels him to learn bitter lessons. —*Celia Burleigh.*

THE three highest titles that can be given a man are those of martyr, hero, saint.—*Gladstone.*

WHEN death has come it is never our tenderness that we repent of, but our severity.—*George Eliot.*

YOU will never "find" time for anything. If you want time, you must make it.—*Charles Buxton.*

AS A general rule, people who flagrantly pretend to anything, are the reverse of that which they pretend to.—*Bulwer-Lytton.*

THERE is in all this cold and hollow world no fount of deep, strong, deathless love, save that within a mother's heart.—*Hemans.*

"TIME!" he exclaimed; "my only trouble is that I have not enough time for my work. For my part, I wish the day would never come to an end."—*Agassiz.*

"WHAT do you charge for lodging?" inquired a man of a hotel keeper. "One dollar." "One dollar; couldn't you take seventy-five cents, and wake me up twenty-five cents earlier than usual?"

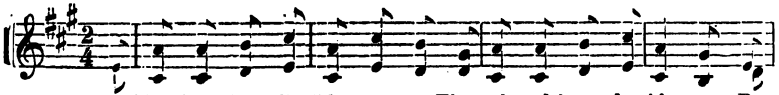
"PLEASE, sir, give a poor blind man a nickel!" said a tramping beggar. "But you are not blind," remarked the gentleman. "No, but my partner is. He is standing down there on the corner watching to see if the police are coming."

A TEACHER, in her little holiday vacation speech to her pupils, said she trusted they would come back resolving that their behavior should be unexceptionable, and that they would give up all bad habits, when a little girl in the back of the room jumped up and said: "The same to you, ma'am."

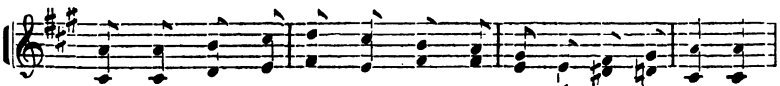
LONGFELLOW'S HOME AND LIBRARY.

From Bryant's "Library of Poetry and Song."

YANKEE DOODLE.

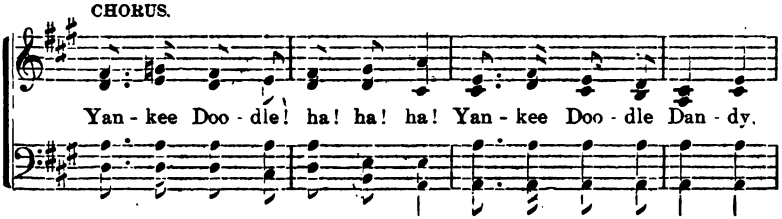


1. "Yan-kee Doo-dle!" long a - go They played it to de-ride us, But

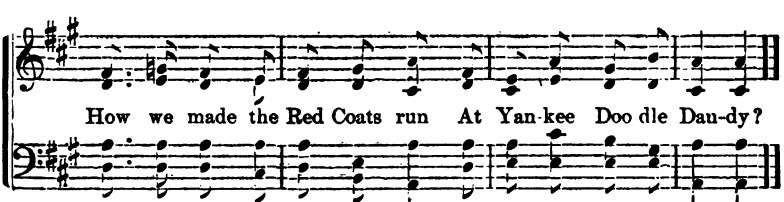


now we march to vic - to - ry, And that's the tune to guide us.

CHORUS.



Yan - kee Doo - dle! ha! ha! ha! Yan - kee Doo - dle Dan - dy.



How we made the Red Coats run At Yan-kee Doo dle Dan-dy?

2 To fight is not a pleasant game,
But if we must we'll do it;
When Yankee Doodle once begins
Our Yankee boys go through it.
Cho. Yankee Doodle! ha! ha! ha!
Yankee Doodle Dandy,
"Go ahead!" the Captains' cry
At Yankee Doodle Dandy?

3 And let her come upon the sea,
The insolent invader,
There the Yankee boys will be
Prepared to serenade her.
Cho. Yankee Doodle! ha! ha! ha!
Yankee Doodle Dandy,
Yankee guns will sing the bass
Of Yankee doodle Dandy?

4 "Yankee Doodle!" how it brings,
The good old days before us!
Two or three began the song,
And Millions join the chorus.
Cho. Yankee doodle! ha! ha! ha!
Yankee Doodle Dandy,
Rolling round the Continent
Is Yankee Doodle Dandy?

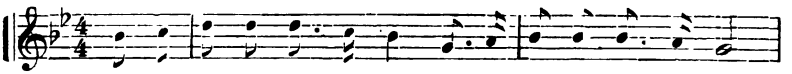
5 "Yankee Doodle!" not alone,
The Continent will hear it,
But all the world shall catch the tone,
And ev'ry tyrant fear it.
Cho. Yankee Doodle! ha! ha! ha!
Yankee Doodle Dandy,
Freedom's voice is in the song
Of Yankee Doodle Dandy?

The origin of "Yankee Doodle" dates back to the reign of Charles I. This popular song was introduced into America, during the French and Indian wars, by Dr. Shackburg, of the English army. Later, Lord Cornwallis and his defeated troops marched into the American lines to the music of "Yankee Doodle." When peace negotiations between Great Britain and the United States were completed, at Ghent, the Burgher's Band, at an entertainment, played "Yankee Doodle" as Uncle Sam's national air. When new recruits are needed, this stirring martial music is sure to enlist them.

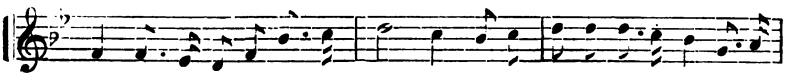
BATTLE CRY OF FREEDOM.

RALLYING SONG.

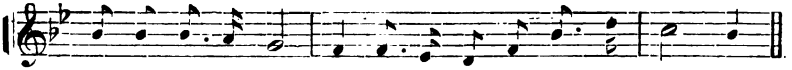
GEO. F. ROOT.



1. Yes, we'll ral - ly round the flag, boys, we'll ral-ly once a - gain,
2. We are springing to the call of our Brothers gone be - fore,
3. We will welcome to our numbers the loy - al, true and brave,
4. So we're springing to the call from the East and from the West,



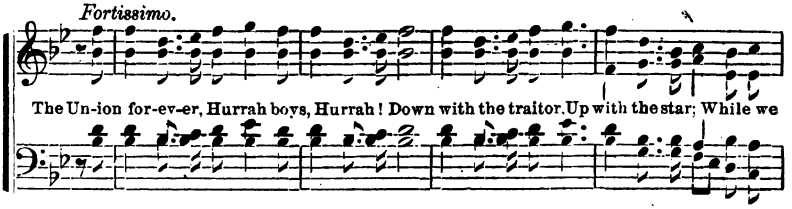
Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom, We will rally from the hill-side, we'll
Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom, And we'll fill the vacant ranks with a
Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom, And al-tho' they may be poor, not a
Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom, And we'll hurl the rebel crew from the



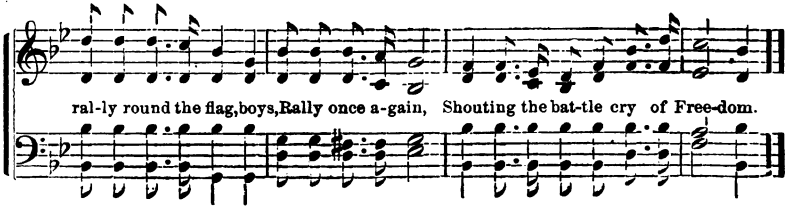
gath-er from the plain, Shout-ing the bat-tle cry of Free - dom.
mil-lion free-men more, Shout-ing the bat-tle cry of Free - dom.
man shall be a slave, Shout-ing the bat-tle cry of Free - dom.
land we love the best, Shout-ing the bat-tle cry of Free - dom.

CHORUS.

Fortissimo.



The Un-ion for-ev-er, Hurrah boys, Hurrah! Down with the traitor, Up with the star; While we



ral-ly round the flag, boys, Rally once a-gain, Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom.

ANCIENT REPUBLICS.

BY FREDERICK T. WALLACE,
Author of "Men and Events of Half a Century."

A MONARCH and a subject. How can one man become the master of another? By what mysterious magic has he been able to become the master of several other men? Monarchial government, as distinguished from democratic or representative government, is Oriental and Asiatic, and as prehistoric as the races of mankind. There is a fable in Hindustan,—and fables often are a key to unlock the secrets of unwritten history,—that Adimo, the father of all the Indians, had two sons and two daughters by his wife, Procrita. The eldest was a vigorous giant, the youngest was a little hunchback; the two girls were pretty. As the giant grew up he caused the little hunchback to serve him. Of his two sisters: one served him as cook; the other, as his gardner. When the giant would sleep, he began by chaining his little brother to a tree; and when the latter fled from him, he caught him in four strides, and gave him twenty blows with the strength of an ox. The dwarf submitted, and became the best subject in the world. The giant, satisfied with seeing him fulfil the duties of a subject, permitted him to marry. The children who sprung from this marriage were not quite humpback, but they were sufficiently physically and mentally inferior to make good subjects. They were brought up in the fear of God and of the great giant. They received an excellent education, being taught that their uncle was a giant by divine right, who could do as he pleased with all his family; that if he had some pretty niece or grand-niece, he should have her without difficulty, and not one should marry her unless he permitted it.

The giant dying, his son, who was neither so strong or so great as he was, believed himself to be like his father, a giant by divine right. He pretended to make all the men work for him, and all the women to serve his bidding. The family, unable to bear such a divine ruler, leagued against him; he was killed, and they became a republic.

The still more Oriental Siamese say, on the contrary, that the family commenced by being republican, and that the giant existed not until after a great many years, and dissensions. But all the authors of those countries agree that

men lived an infinity of ages before they had the wit to establish governments and make laws; and a publicist of France prior to the great Revolution, said: "They prove it by an unanswerable argument; which is, that even at present, when all the world piques itself upon having wit, we have not yet found the means of making a score of laws passably good."

It can never be settled whether republics were established before or after monarchies; whether public agitation has appeared more horrible to men than despotism; yet nature asserts that the human race are all born equal. Violence and ability made the first monarchs; laws have made the present.

OBSTACLES TO FREE AND LIBERAL GOVERNMENT.

Ambition and wealth have ever been the great obstacles to free and liberal government. The history of Ardassan, the young servant of the grand sultan, illustrates: "How unfortunate am I to have been born," said the servant. "Yet, if I depended only on the Sultan—but I am also subject to the chief of my oda, to the cassigi bachi; and, when I receive my pay, I must prostrate myself before a clerk of the teftardar, who keeps back half of it. I was not seven years old, when, in spite of myself, I was circumcised with great ceremony and was ill for a fortnight after it. The dervise who prays to us is also my master; an imaum is still more my master, and the mullah still more than the imaum. The cadi is another master; the kadeslesker a greater; the mufti a greater than all these together. The kiaia of the grand vizier with one word could cause me to be thrown into the canal; and finally, the grand vizier could have me beheaded, and the skin of my head stripped off without any person caring about the matter. Great Allah! how many masters. If I had as many souls and bodies as I have duties to fulfil, I could not bear it. Oh, Allah! why hast thou not made me an owl? I should live free in my hole, and eat mice at my ease, without masters or servants. This is assuredly the true destiny of man; there were no masters until it was perverted; no man was ever made to serve another continually. If things were in order, each would charitably help his neighbor. The quick-sighted would conduct the blind; the active would be crutches to the lame. This world would be the paradise of Mahomet, instead of the hell which is formed precisely under this inconceivably narrow bridge."

Thus spoke Ardassan, after being bastinadoed by one of his masters. Some years afterwards, Ardassan became a pacha with three tails. He made a prodigious fortune, and firmly believed that all men, except the grand sultan and the grand vizier were born to serve him; and all the most beautiful women to await upon him in his court.

ORIGIN OF REPUBLICS.

Republics, as known to history, were in all instances the result of early European civilization, save possibly that Asiatic, theocratic, government, denominated by some as the Commonwealth of Israel. But the digest of Hebrew statutes, during the four hundred years from Moses to Saul, requires the critical examination and commentary of the Rabbi, who reads the grand old dialect the Prophets spake, to determine for us the full significance, inherent rights and powers in the matter of the election of Judges, ratifying the laws of Jehovah, numbering of the people, and levying of taxes, possessed by that popular assembly termed the "Congregation of Israel."

GRECIAN REPUBLICS.

The first of European republics were the Grecian. The ancient inhabitants of that wonderful point of land that juts into the Mediterranean, almost from the foot of the Balkan Mountains, half continent and half peninsula, with Crete and numerous smaller islands of the Ægean Sea, were Pelasgians, a race or tribe of people who, in very remote ages, came out from the mountain regions near the headwaters of the Indus, whose ancestors were a high type of people called Aryans, colonies of whom "went west" to possess homes in Europe ages before Abraham left the valley of the Euphrates to become the father of the Hebrew race. The Pelasgians were not barbarians, nor even nomads, but tillers of the soil and dwellers in walled towns. Family relations were gentle and tender, habits were simple, and general intelligence was on the increase, and the people were generally hospitable. During that long and indefinite period called the Heroic Age to the time of the siege of that Troy, which is now proved to be the third city upon the same site, or something more than a thousand years before Christ, before Solomon had built his temple, and down even to the first Olympiad, about B.C. 776, Greece was divided into several States or tribes, each ruled by a chief, sometimes called kings, whose power was similar to that exercised by the patriarchs of the Old Testament.

CUT UP BY MOUNTAINS.

Greece, from the first, was not a single State like England, but was divided into many little ones. Homer gives a long list of kings who brought their forces to the siege of Troy; and all through Greek history we read of very small States. Greece was cut up into little pieces by mountains. In Greece there are so many mountains difficult to cross, that the fertile spots among them, where people settled, they were quite cut off from one another; and in early times, before men made use of ships, they would hardly ever see any

one outside of their own valleys. This difference will be seen if we compare it with England or Egypt. England has no high mountains, and Egypt is a rich, flat land on both sides of the Nile. Hence the latter country, from the earliest times, had but a single country under one great king like the Pharaohs. It was the same with Babylon on the Euphrates. There was nothing to separate one part of the country from another; a single king ruled over a large district, and could raise a great army. The power and magnificence of the kings overawed the people, who had no thought of resisting the royal power. Hence the kings of Babylon and Egypt became absolute masters over the people, called their subjects, but who were little more than their slaves. In Greece the case was the reverse of this. There is no large flat tract in the whole of Greece. The mountains divide it into a number of very small districts, and in each of these districts, the king, so-called, was only like a chief among the heads of families. He had not wealth enough to live in the splendor of Eastern kings, in palaces, and make the people think him a kind of a god; nor could he raise a great army, and overrun neighboring countries, and make the people his slaves.

PHŒNICIANS VISIT GREECE.

Very early, then, we find the Greeks, broken up into little groups, covering European Greece and the islands near it, and races very like them upon the west coast of Asia Minor. The rich men owned flocks and herds, corn-lands and vineyards; the poor had little farms of their own, or worked as laborers for the rich. But upon the coast a new and busier life was beginning. There the Greeks first met the Phœnician, or Canaanite merchant from Tyre and Sidon, who had began to trade with distant lands, while the Greeks were still simple farmers. The Phœnicians had an alphabet, and a scale of weights and measures, long before the Greeks. They had made many discoveries, or learned them from Eastern nations. They had learned how to make a purple dye, for royal robes, from the shell of a little sea-creature, and how to dig mines, and work metals. When the best trees in the forests of Mount Lebanon were cut down, and the Phœnicians had to go in search of timber for their ships, they found abundance of pine, oak and other valuable trees on the shores of the Ægean Sea. Here also they found copper, iron and silver. Hence came merchandising and foreign trade. The goods of Tyre and Sidon were taken in exchange for timber, wool and other produce of the Greeks. In time the Greeks on the coast came to know all the Phœnicians knew. They took their alphabet, their weights and their measures; made ships themselves, and coasted the shores of the main land, and the many islands of the wonderful Archæpelago. Piracy became early fashionable, as it was once in later civil-

ized countries. Such enterprises at least tended to enlarge the knowledge of other people along the Mediterranean coasts.

THE BEAUTY OF GRECIAN TERRITORY.

If we study the map of Greece we shall discover that no other people had a more inspiring, beautiful territory than the Greeks. There was poetry and romance in her mountains, valleys and plains; and they have won the admiration of all down to this day. The natural scenery was unsurpassed. Surrounded by water upon three sides, with indented bays, giving every little State, except Arcadia, a seaport, it was well adapted to the development of a race of both mountaineers and mariners, classes most valuable for the defense of national rights and liberties.

REVOLUTIONS.

An increased knowledge of the world, which came through commerce, early lost to them reverence for their chiefs, and in a very short space of time they were all deposed. And it is creditable to the early Greek character that most of the revolutions from monarchy to republicanism were effected without bloodshed. Sometimes, on the death of a king, or chief, his son was acknowledged as ruler for life, or a certain number of years, with the title of Archon; and sometimes they struck out boldly against the royal house, and elected a noble or eminent person Prytanis, or President. During the period from B.C. 650, for 150 years, most of the cities of Greece had become dissatisfied with the ruling few; and ambitious citizens, called despots, seized the reins of government. The Sicronian, Corinthian, and Megarian despots were among the most celebrated. But it is said to be a remarkable historical fact that no Grecian despot ever established a permanent dynasty. Sparta alone, of all the Grecian States, after throwing off the monarchical, retained an oligarchial form of government. Lycurgus could have made himself dictator, but he preferred to enact such laws as would place Sparta among the most powerful of the Greek Commonwealths. Sparta was the principal seat of power in the Peleponnessus, and

ATHENS WAS THE QUEEN CITY OF THE NORTH.

As early as the year 400 B.C., Athens was a place of political importance. She exerted a sort of sovereignty in Greece, and became also the center of literary and scientific culture. The pure democratic polity of the republic gave to popular eloquence the greatest freedom, and so the language of Athens attained to a completeness unsurpassed by any other dialect of Greece. Here was born our cherished doctrine of "freedom of speeeh," unknown to monarchies, ancient or modern. Every freeman was trained in logic, rhetoric, and oratory, so as to be able, before Athenian jurors and without the aid of counsel,

to defend himself. From all the other states, Greeks repaired to Athens for their education. The Attic thus became the court language, and the general language of books. Athens was the mother of refinement, literature and art, and the founder of European civilization. The State of Attica during the one hundred years next prior to about 430 B.C., produced many illustrious statesmen, scholars, and artists, whose names have come down to us: Themistocles, Miltiades, Aristides, Pericles, Thucydides, Socrates, Plato, Æschylus, Sophocles, Aristophanes, and Phidias—names not surpassed in Europe in the succeeding two thousand years.

THE DOWNFALL OF THE REPUBLIC.

A splendid ancient republic! Yet Greece which should have had her little states centralized; Greece, so beautiful, strong, and enterprising, which, combined, had strength enough to resist any invasion the world could have attempted; that country, at one time having the most flourishing republican institutions known to history, entirely lost her independence. She yielded first to Macedonia, then to Persia, then to Rome, then to the Goths and Vandals, then to the Popes, then to the Moslems, under whose rule the common people were condemned to hopeless slavery and degradation. And to-day Greece is nothing but a petty and poverty-stricken kingdom, whose royal assumptions are ridiculous.

THE CAUSES.

What were the causes that brought about the fall of this once beautiful country and grand republic? The answer is, rapid increase of wealth: Treasures of conquered cities, Persian subsidies, and bribes paid to influential citizens, created a wide-spread passion for money, one of the weaknesses of human nature, the consequence of which is indulgence and extravagance. The rich sought for the luxuries of the East, and by their mode of living, more and more separated themselves from the poor. The poor sought by every means at command to gain such wealth as would relieve them from social degradation. In the hearts of all a feverish cupidity took the place of noble moral purpose and of patriotism, and the race of Spartan heroes disappeared. The story is the same in all the States both large and small throughout Greece. Cupidity leads to the perpetration of wrongs upon the less successful, and advantage is ever taken of the poor; and usury as high as thirty-six per cent., made the rich richer and the poor poorer. Robbery became the revenge of the poor. Measures that looked to a re-distribution of property were demanded by the mass of non-property holders. The demagogue who promised legislation that would relieve their distress was the hero of the hour, and by the suffrages of the people was often elevated to the most responsible positions. Men basely notorious

and cruel, like Cleon of Athens, Periander of Corinth, Thrasybulus of Miletus, —could sway and infuriate the popular heart. Robbery, more than once, and in more than one way and in more than one State, was legalized. Forced loans and contributions were imposed upon the rich by popular vote.

THE LIBERALS.

At other times, after some so-called liberal party victory had been gained, the rabble would enter the houses of the rich and force them to provide costly banquets. They confiscated the property of nobles and drove them into exile. They repudiated all debts, and forced their aristocratic creditors to refund any interest that had been paid. It often resulted that those who possessed property, exasperated by rude injustice, would often side with a dictator or tyrant who was thought able to relieve them from the tyranny of a mob.

Ambitious aspirants for office were a curse to the Grecian States. Leading men had jealousies and animosities, and such would sometimes rather the country would be ruined than that their rival should be successful. Patriotism gave place to self seeking. Themistocles was jealous of Miltiades for his success at Marathon; and there were mutual jealousies between Themistocles and Aristides, each preferring national defeat rather than victory at the hands of his rival.

DEMAGOGUEISM.

The Constitution of all the Grecian States had grown more and more democratic and turbulent, until the lowest and the lewdest had equal voice and right, with the best citizens. Unrestricted franchise was followed by laxity in the selection of proper persons to fill public positions; and then came the end of public virtue and justice. A score of demagogues were found in strife for positions which only one could occupy. The party of the shore, and the party of the plain, and the party of the mountain, the war parties and the peace parties, would each in turn be successful, aggressive, and tyrannical.

The successful party often wreaked vengeance on the defeated. Arrests were made of opposition leaders, and executions speedily followed very brief testimony. Citizens were arrested by secret orders, one after another disappearing, no one pretending to know how or why. After the death of Pericles the mob became despotic and tyrannical, and was easily influenced by ambitious demagogues against men of opulence, eminence and respectability whenever appearing in public or attempting any patriotic service. The ancient order of Solon, that there should be no evil speaking in the State, was disregarded, and the atmosphere was filled with abusive language. Those who had rendered the most distinguished service did not escape, and such abuse alienated even

devout patriots. The slightest defects or mistakes were exaggerated and made a ground for slander, ostracism, or death. Men who had done the most for the State often fared the worst. Even Miltiades, the hero of Marathon, died in prison. Themistocles was banished and Pericles suffered at the hands of a furious populace. This state of things would seem to indicate that the ruin of the State was only a question of time.

OTHER REASONS FOR HER DOWNFALL.

The downfall of Grecian independence may be attributed, likewise, in an eminent degree, to a defect in the National Constitution. Greece, including the different States, was a small country, its greatest length not more than two hundred and fifty miles, its greatest breadth only one hundred and eighty. Its safety against foreign invasion depended, therefore, upon a form of government such as could unite all the States under one federal compact. The people of these States had many ties to bind them together, such as community of blood and language, manners and character, together with religious rites and festivals. They had, likewise, national councils and leagues. The most noted of which was the Amphictyonic, a sort of Greek National Congress. There were also such leagues as the Bœotian, Æolian, and Delian. No one of these, however, interfered with independent States rights. There was nothing strong enough in these assemblies to combine the efforts of the Greek States permanently against the Persian monarchs, the Macedonian kings, or against the Roman legions. One State sometimes became prominent enough to exercise authority over neighboring States, but no lasting bond of union was formed, or apparently desired.

So radical was the political disunion among Greek cities, that the citizens of one, if he visited another, was looked upon as an alien. There was social ostracism whenever a northern Greek visited the South or an Eastern Greek visited the west. Easily, therefore, could the Greek cities be led to take up arms against one another, almost as easily as against a foreign foe.

Therefore, there would seem to be no grounds for doubt that one of the fundamental defects in the Grecian Commonwealths was their want of a centralized form of government. Greek would not unite with Greek. They would not recognize a national supremacy. They professed primal loyalty to the individual State. Each city of the national council or league sought those measures only which would contribute most to its individual interests, without regard to the interests of the other cities, or those of the entire nationality. It was a disunion of States, and a consequent conflict of political interests and jealousies, a bludering States rights' policy, which at length contributed so

largely to Grecian weakness as to render her an easy prey to any foe that might assail.

Sparta, at the South, and Athens at the North and East were especially antagonistic to each other. Sparta sought to force an oligarchy upon all her dependencies and allies. Athens as zealously sought to force pure democracies upon every State subject to her empire. In this conflict of political ideas, Sparta was the first to exercise a sort of opinion over the other States. Then, after the Persian wars, Athens contested the palm with Sparta, and, through the Confederacy of Delos, stood, at least in the matter of material power, at the head of Grecian States. Then Sparta, jealous of Athenian supremacy, formed a league with certain other States for the purpose of crushing Athens. After a protracted struggle Athens fell, and Sparta again ruled Greece, maintaining her supremacy for about thirty years. Thebes in the meantime grew into consequence, took a hand against Sparta, led by Epaminondas, and wrested from her the Grecian supremacy. Subsequently the tide turned in favor of Athens. But Greece was exhausted by domestic wars, and appealed to the King of Persia, her old foe, as an arbiter of her quarrels. At the north of Greece lay Macedonia, a country which the Greeks had despised as a barbarous territory, unworthy to rank within the pale of Greek civilization. Philip was its King, sagacious and somewhat cultivated, commanding and eloquent, young and ambitious.

In the midst of the "social" and "sacred" wars of Greece, Philip made the conquest of the State of Thessaly. This was the occasion of Demostheneses first "Philipic." He tried to pursuade the Athenians to form a union with the other Grecian States, to resist Philip and his Macedonians. But personal safety for the time being seemed the height of Athenian ambition, and the extent of Athenian foresight. Most unfortunate was it also, amid these scenes and dangers, that military service was no longer rendered by patriotic citizens, but by hired soldiery. Young men had lost all martial taste, and aliens garrisoned the most important fortifications of Greece. Public revenues were frittered away in useless and needless expenditures, instead of upon fleets and armies. Greece at length was left well destitute of all physical defence.

CONQUEST BY THE ROMANS.

Nothing standing in the way, Macedonia became the leading State, and in 335 B.C., Alexander, Philip's son, subdued all the other States of Greece. Two hundred years later the conquering Romans crushed the Macedonian power, sweeping over the country almost without resistance, and the last Grecian league, the Achæan, vanished. It was the Roman general Sylla who

made the conquest of Greece, (B.C. 146.) He broke down the wall between the Persians and the Sacred Gate, and poured in his soldiers to punish and slay. With drawn swords they swept through the streets. The ground ran with blood. Great numbers of the citizens were slain, and their property was plundered by the soldiers. The groves of the Academy and the Lyceum were cut down; and the columns were carried away from the temple of Olympian Zeus to ornament the city of Rome.

THE EPITAPH OF THE GRECIAN REPUBLICS.

The epitaph of the Grecian republics is but the accord of luxury and extravagance attendant upon wealth; general laxity in morality; jealousies and discontents incident to poverty; conflicts between different political parties, each willing to sacrifice the safety of the State, and even the State itself, sooner than allow a competitor to succeed; abuse allowed to be heaped upon patriots by political opponents; favors shown even to traitors and to the most dangerous classes, when they could be used to promote party interests; a disunion of States, constantly embroiled with one another through conflicting interests—these are the reasons why that country, which rose to such eminence, and which might have remained a strong republic to this day, fell in degradation and ruin."

CARTHAGENIAN REPUBLIC.

The traveler along the southern coast of the Mediterranean can hardly realize, even by the aid of history, that Northern Africa, five hundred years before Christ, contained a republic. But such was Carthage, made up originally of colonies from Tyre, Sidon, and other cities of Phœnicia. A government of no hereditary rights and privileges, but whose rulers were created by, and subject to, election by the people. Their chief legislative body was the Great Council of the Elders. It was for ages a government of tranquility, and not of conquest. Mercantile and commercial, in its character, resulting in wealth, splendor, and municipal agrandizement. Its administration was liberal; there were courts of justice, banking institutions, public libraries, and also schools of literature and art. Her republican form of government was not split up, like that of Greece, into numerous petty and jealous States, each clamoring for its rights and independence, but was centralized, like that of Rome.

At the time when the struggle between Rome and Carthage commenced, Rome was semi-barbarous, Carthage was highly civilized; Rome was comparatively poor, grasping, and eager for conquest, Carthage rich, radiant with the

commerce of the Mediterranean; Rome was seeking for new territory and murdering her subjects, Carthage was making discoveries and spreading the genius of commerce; Rome had an army, Carthage had both an army and a navy; Rome was master of the northwest, Carthage of the northeast; Rome was a nation of laborers and soldiers, Carthage a nation of merchants and mariners; Rome was seeking to rule with the sword and spear, Carthage with her gold and commerce. Carthage could also boast of her agricultural resources such as were matched by but few other countries of antiquity. The soil of some of her island dependencies was extremely fertile, while that of her African territories was unsurpassed. And it is gratifying to learn that many of the great families of the republic, in the early days of her ascendency, took pride in being classed with those who cultivated the arts of husbandry.

THE CAPITAL OF THE REPUBLIC.

The city of Carthage, the capital of the republic, was situated upon the shores of a bay of the Mediterranean, and at the time of its greatest prosperity outranked all other contemporary cities of the world, both as a maratime power and a commercial emporium. The city, with its streets and gardens, covered a peninsula twenty-three miles in circuit, and was guarded by a tripple wall with interior casemates, which housed three hundred elephants, five thousand horses, and twenty thousand infantry. In times of peace thousands of vessels could anchor in the bay of Tunis. In times of danger they could shelter themselves in a harbor fourteen hundred feet long and eleven hundred feet broad, which opened, by an entrance seventy feet wide, into an inner harbor for ships of war, surrounded by quays, with docks for two hundred and twenty galleys. The Carthagenian loved his country as a whole, while Carthage, the metropolis, was almost revered. It was to the republic what Paris is to France.

HER DOMINION.

Carthage when first known to history held dominion over the Phœnecian colonies of North Africa; over the Libyans and native Numidians; she conquered Sardinia, regarded by the ancients as the greatest of all islands; also Elba, Malta, and the eastern half of Sicily. She was mistress of all the western islands in the Mediterranean, and in course of time, Spain, which was then the richest country in the known world, became part of the Carthagenian empire. She pushed her army into Italy, often sending terror into the Roman heart, even in the days when that republic was almost the ruler of the world. Hamilcar and Hannibal were her most famous military leaders. Her enterprises were not alone war and conquest, but she sent expeditions to the coast of Guinea, and advanced south of the mouths of the Senegal and the Gambia. The

Carthagenians discovered the passage around the Cape of Good Hope two thousand years before the subsequent discovery of Dias and Vasco da Gama. Her merchant ships passed beyond the Pillars of Hercules and through the British Channel. Her freight caravans crossed the deserts to the valleys of the Nile and the Niger.

A few years later, her African territories had become a granary for the Roman people, a hunting-ground for their ampitheatres, and an emporium for slaves. To-day Carthage fills but a narrow and obscure space upon the page of history; her harbor is filled and her ruined foundations are covered deep by desert sands.

TEACHING OF HISTORY.

The advocate of republican institutions will be interested to know the causes by which such a magnificent commonwealth fell. History teaches that her material prosperity paved the way, through unrestricted indulgence, extravagance, effeminacy, and loss of patriotism, to her overthrow and ruin.

The national simplicity, industry and frugality, upon which the commonwealth had been founded and which had contributed largely in building it up, gave way with astonishing rapidity to other controlling tendencies and evils. Changes in opinion and fashion appear, during the space of a very few years, to have been completely revolutionized. To be an agriculturist was no longer thought honorable, hence those who were able sought to enter the more glittering fields and paths of traffic and commerce. The military spirit, likewise, speedily declined, and the hitherto victorious Carthagenian armies lost their citizen soldiery, which is always a national calamity. Her military forces were recruited by Lybyan conscripts, slaves and foreign mercenaries. Wars were allowed to impoverish the national treasury, resulting in what is not uncommon, a nation struggling in bankruptcy, though having individual citizens possessed of immense wealth.

Avarice soon stifled patriotism in the hearts of the rich; the mercenary troops could not be paid; they revolted, and more than once Carthage was brought to the brink of ruin. Immense fortunes had been amassed by a few, while the poorer classes became still poorer. The rich fell into luxurious and extravagant ways of living, which the poorer classes attempted to imitate, but of course could not. Jealousies and feuds between leading men, such as Hanno and Hamilcar, those between capital and labor, between the aristocracy and democracy, between war and peace parties, became frequent, and were in Carthage, as elsewhere, extremely demoralizing. Infringement and violation of the national constitution followed. Several distinct offices were combined in one person, who by force or bribes, could command them, for the masses came

to care not for the republic, but only for the next dinner. The profligate citizens often broke up into angry and tumultuous factions and were utterly uncontrollaable. The formation of the Court of the One Hundred was inevitable, and this, managed by a few bold leaders, became, at length, a political inquisition, ordering banishment or death as it might dictate. In this way, as might be expected, Carthage, during a short time, lost many of her best citizens. Her subjects, groaning under the burdens of increased taxation and internal revenues, became rebels.

When, therefore, this internally divided republic, whose citizens were destitute of a self-sacrificing patriotism, could agree upon no policy, when there was no man daring enough to usurp control of the government and unite the people, then Carthage was attacked by the Romans, and fell. Her fall, however, was not so much through Roman might and prowess as through her own folly.

"DELENDA EST CARTHAGO."

The final destruction of the city by the Romans was in a manner savage and brutal. The metropolis, which had been enriched with the gold and silver, the statues and the pictures of a score of countries, with its towers, its ramparts, its walls, its canals, its ornamental displays, and its public and private parks, and edifices of every character, which the industrious Carthagenian had constructed during the course of many ages, and at vast expense, were completely destroyed; and not a single house was permitted to stand. A State perished, a republic fell B.C. 146.

ROMAN REPUBLIC.

Italy, not unlike Greece, is a peninsula stretching down into the Mediterranean seven hundred and fifty miles. It has natural barriers against invasion from the North by the Alps. A great portion of the northern part, through which runs the Po, the product of the mountain snow, is as level as the Delta of the Nile. Through the center from north to south run the chain of the Appenines. The coasts upon either side are diversified with hill, valley and plains, lovely and attractive today as nearly three thousand years ago.

When the Greeks came there to plant colonies after the Trojan war they found primitive races of men there, organized into tribes, clans and families. The principal race, north of the Tiber, were called Etruscans, governed by a race of Kings running back more than 600 years B.C. Regal Rome, which was at

first the city built on one of the seven hills on the south side of the Tiber, some fourteen miles from its mouth, had about 250 years of kingly rule, from Romulus to Tarquin the Proud, when the kingdom came to an end. During the reign of the kings the territory around the city, and south, called the Latin coast, was mastered by the Romans, which greatly enlarged their powers by land and sea. Under Servius Tullius, the last but one and best of all the kings, the primitive constitution of Rome was so changed as to admit common people into state councils upon a property qualification. Not long after the death of Tullius, B.C. 535, the early kingdom of Rome came to an end.

THE RISE OF THE REPUBLIC.

During the next two centuries the government was stongly conservative, though often upon certain matters there were bitter conflicts between the Senate and the Commonalty. The democrats sought for increased power and for a re-distribution of property. In 326 B.C., the democracy was triumphant, and a law was enacted which entitled every person to vote without regard to the value of his property. About twenty-five years later another law was enacted abolishing all distinctions between patricians and plebians as to holding office.

HER ADVANTAGES OVER OTHER NATIONS.

It was among the advantages of Rome over her neighbors during the years of her early history that she possessed high military spirit and discipline. Her army was constituted of property owners. The sons of patrician and equestrian families, were organized into troops. Rome, like Greece, during her ascendency, retained respect for the arts of agriculture. The plains of Italy were abundant in crops of all kinds and rich in pastures and flocks. The main source of the wealth of Rome, and their most honorable occupation, was agriculture. The greatest generals and statesmen, after holding for a time the helm of the republic, and gaining victories and triumphs, did not scruple to return to the plow and live in rural retirement. It is among the pleasant surprises to the visitor to Rome today that the very identical land, where Cincinnatus was plowing when called to command in the city, is pointed out, in the suburbs of Rome, not a mile from the Vatican.

ROMAN LITERATURE.

The hundred years prior to the death of Augustus was the golden age of Roman literature. Private and public libraries were established, and there were schools whose teachars and professors were from among the best scholars of Greece and other nations. Among the distinguished men were Cæsar and

Pompey, Cicero and Cato, Virgil, Horace, and a long list only a little less noted familiar to every school boy of to-day.

ROMAN CONQUESTS.

Protected by her natural boundaries, and compact in her population, after having made herself mistress of all the peninsula, Rome extended her territory by foreign conquests until she determined the fate of the world. The period of the Roman republic is about 500 years, from the fall of Tarquin to the monarchy under Augustus. During the hundred years just prior to the monarchy, the political power of the republic was colossal; she held sway over all the islands of the Mediterranean, Egypt, Carthage, and all of North Africa, Spain, Gaul as far as the Rhine, Macedonia, Greece, and the innumerable territories of Asia, even far beyond the Euphrates.

THE CAUSES OF HER DEGRADATION.

Such were the position, strength, and vast extent of the Roman republic. If permanency and stability can be expected in human governments, Rome might well have been regarded as secure and mighty. During a hundred and twenty years, or from 265 to 145 B.C. the constitution of the Roman republic was in the meridian of its splendor, and to all appearance in the highest perfection and promise of permanency. But it is now only a name in history. After the republic came the empire, in which were some of the most cruel despots who ever disgraced humanity. After the glory and shame of the empire came barbarian conquests and spoliations; and after the northern, eastern, and western invasions came the equally deplorable

DOMINATION AND SWAY OF THE PONTIFFS.

The steps leading from Rome's greatness to her degradation were not in the line of disunion, or non-union as in Greece. Even a centralized republic is not secure against subversion and overthrow. The cause of great and rapidly accumulated wealth, the result of the spoliations of nations incident to her victories, are among the destructive evils to the Roman commonwealth. Following her victories in the East came riches and Oriental styles and luxuries. Eastern commerce extended rapidly and immense mercantile fortunes were made. Money was no longer copper, as in the times of the subjugation of Spain and Gaul, but it was gold and silver after the fall of Macedonia and Antiochus. The passion for accumulation took possession of all classes. Extravagance took the place of ancient simplicity. Rome became a city of palaces. All who had made fortunes in the wars of the East indulged in luxuries, and those who had not hated those who had. The love of the theatre was succeeded by a passion

for the more degrading public shows and bloody gladitorial exhibitions. The avarice of the great, the licentiousness of the populace, and the growing cruelty of all classes, settled like a miasma upon the Roman republic.

CONTEMPT OF AGRICULTURE.

After the taste of oriental luxuries, agriculture was no longer deemed an honorable occupation and it was abandoned to slaves. In early times there was a law that no man should own more than five hundred acres; but as immense fortunes accumulated, large landed possessions were acquired by being bought up from small proprietors, using them for pastures, cultivating them by slaves, or devoting them to parks and other ornamental purposes. The ancient yeomanry were wiped out, and the truth of history is manifest to the traveler through Italy to-day, the miles of vacant and untenanted fields, the castle upon the mountains, but no farm house upon the plain. Nothing like the English and American rural homes. At length Italy, the most fertile country of Europe, was dependent for her annual supply of corn upon Sicily, Sardinia, and Egypt.

Tiberius Gracchus tried to form an industrious class of agriclturists. He pleaded for a re-distribution of the public lands, on which he saw slaves in chains performing manual labor. He sought to enforce the ancient law, by which no more than five hundred acres of the public land could belong to one person, unless he had sons, in which case two hundred and fifty acres more were added for each son. He had, however, but few influential sympathizers; he was more successful in arousing the bitter resentment of the wealthy than in securing the end he had in view, and was cruelly murdered. Virgil attempted an agricultural reform by means of his pen. He wrote the Bucolics in order to awaken interest in the cultivation of the soil. But he was unable by poetic arts to lift into respectability what the Romans had come to look upon as one of the dishonorable employments.

LICENTIOUSNESS.

There came no less a blight upon the Roman family. Even women, more than men, became infatuated and intoxicated with social excesses and the licentiousness of the times. The care and trouble of rearing a family of children became irksome to the higher classes, and as a result the number of free native citizens constantly decreased, while freedmen, slaves and foreigners multiplied with extraordinary rapidity.

The legal profession became depraved. The road to political preferment lay through the practice of law. To be a consul, one must be a lawyer. The

senate was controlled by lawyers. The patrician would lose caste if he engaged in any business except law. Men who adopt the legal profession to be used as a machine for the extortion of money or for political preferment, cannot be safe rulers or legislators. Such was the experience of Rome.

GENERAL DEMORALIZATION.

During the early days of the republic, judges, if convicted of taking bribes, were wont to be punished by heavy fines, were disqualified from being senators, and were often sent into exile. But later, the courts and government were so demoralized that it was a practice of the most common occurrence to buy up with impunity the judges on the bench. An appeal to the courts came to be well nigh useless, except to those who could purchase decisions. Love of money and power deadened every other feeling, and the judges were not much better than those whose acts of injustice they were called upon to punish.

Another great misfortune came in the decline of the military spirit among the native citizens. The poorer classes were enlisted who had never served before in the Roman legions. The nobles did not object, as thereby they were relieved from the necessity of military service. They prized their ease so highly that they could not, or at least did not, see the peril of intrusting military matters to a few designing leaders and to slaves and lawless people, who were without patriotism and fiercely greedy for pelf and plunder.

Well may a nation tremble when, in disturbed times, an ambitious, military genius comes into power at the head of slaves and aliens. Since the soldiers of Rome served not for patriotism but for pay, and since they were blind to all interests save to those of the commander, it is not surprising that the senate came to dread the success of the national armies almost as much as their defeat.

THE "UPSTARTS."

The Roman administration became more deplorable and dangerous than that of her courts and military affairs. Strifes between different classes and parties grew more and more determined. The old patrician aristocracy, gradually reduced in numbers and influence, still clung tenaciously to their distinctions and rank. Some of the plebeian families, which had accumulated wealth, formed themselves into a new aristocracy, called "upstarts." The feuds between these contending factions were so bitter, that, during their strife, the safety of the State was by neither party cared for nor thought of. The population of the city was more than 4,000,000, and constantly increasing in numbers, but, thousands of them without property or industry, were in a condition to be

bought and used by either party or any person, patriot or traitor, who could pay the largest price.

A WARNING TO MODERN REPUBLICS.

The "upstarts" were thus enabled to buy the seats of the senate chamber. The senate was degraded still further by the admission into it of persons from the most disreputable classes. These were admitted to the highest legislative trusts through the influence of corrupt demagogues who desired their votes. They voted for those who could best pay, feed, and amuse them. The mob element of the city, having been bribed and cajoled by unprincipled political leaders and office-seekers, began to feel that in matters of State they were of chief importance. They looked to the State for a living, and to ambitious office seekers for pastimes and amusements. The republic yielded to the demand, fed the idle rabble, at one time to the number of 320,000. In consequence, the mob became more and more difficult to manage. The Censors, chiefly to keep the city masses employed, ordered public works, such as paving streets, graveling of roads, the building of aqueducts and bridges. The vast numbers of persons who had been brought to the city by conquests in foreign countries, and who were now reduced to slavery, rendered their economical employment impossible. The mob became more and more dangerous. The noblest Romans abandoned the republic, or obtained military commands in distant places.

UNDER A DICTATOR.

Rome had her schools and her literature, but education even did not seem to inspire patriotism, reduce crime, nor apparently benefit the republic. Demagogueism bore sway. The ancient regulations for preserving the purity of the voting lists were neglected. It became impossible to distinguish between those who were entitled to the franchise, and those who were not. All classes were under the delusion that any change would improve civil affairs. There had not been a dictator for more than a century, but when the victorious Sulla (82 B.C.) returned from his campaigns in Asia, the people were in readiness to proclaim him dictator.

He mitigated certain evils, but occasioned new ones. He confiscated the possessions of those who would not yield and make them over to his soldiers. He conferred the Roman franchise upon a body of ten thousand emancipated slaves, and the vacancies in the senate were filled by persons, who for the most part, being merely the ignorant and willing tools of Sulla, were unfit for the position. During his short reign, he caused the murder of eight thousand Samnite captives, forty-six public officers, two hundred senators, and one hundred and fifty thousand citizens, and drove thousands of the most industrious and peace-

able people into exile, poverty and wretchedness. When he had killed off all his enemies he had himself elected Consul. He gave magnificent games and banqueted the people of Rome for many days. Dying soon thereafter he was, nevertheless, honored with the grandest funeral that had ever been witnessed at Rome.

THE DAYS OF CATILINE.

Demagogueism was now bearing its ripest and rottenest fruit. It was the days of Cataline. No one could obtain office without expending money to bribe the electors. The time had been in the history of the republic when canvassing for votes by corrupt means, or even by personal solicitation, was heavily fined, and the person convicted was excluded from the Senate, and was perpetually incapacitated from holding public office. In the later and degenerate days, however, office-holders not only bought up the popular vote, but, in order to provide themselves with funds necessary to command votes for their re-election, freely embezzled the public moneys, and practiced all sorts of extortions upon conquered provinces.

The time had been when the public libeller might be beaten to death, and, even if the castigation did not result fatally, he was looked upon as civilly dead, and could neither give evidence in court nor make a will. But in these later days of the republic, each candidate for office sought, by calumnies and misrepresentation, to blacken the reputation of his competitor, and thus the fickle populace was made to look upon even the best friends of the republic with suspicion and distrust.

There were coalitions, like those of Sulla and Catiline, to defeat Marius; Marius and Sulpicius against the Senate; Lipidus and Catulus; Brutus and Pompey; Claudius and Milo, and finally Pompey, Cæsar, and Antony. Two or three of these designing and able men, by patronizing the unemployed classes—the husbandmen who had been reduced to beggary, the military desperadoes who thronged the country, the exiled citizens, and the hungry populace, could easily organize an army, and wield it solely for selfish purposes. Sixty years before the Christian era, Cæsar, Pompey and Crassus held in their hands the fate of the republic. Crassus wanted wealth; Pompey wanted to rule in Asia; and Cæsar purposed to rise above them both. Cæsar ultimately assumed the position of dictator, and the senate and people at once meekly bowed to the will of this great leader and usurper. To make himself secure against political opponents, Cæsar confiscated and sold the property of Pompey, and by arbitrary will, introduced many personal friends and partisans into the senate.

When, therefore, Rome had become little better than a den of robbers and vagabonds; when extravagance and luxury had reached their height in such families as had the means of indulgence; when audacity and impudence were rampant among the rabble because law was powerless to check them; when good men, whose number grew smaller and smaller, had everything to fear, while bad men felt that, whatever the changes impending, their condition could only be improved; when affairs had come to this desperate pass, then the

ROMAN REPUBLIC EXISTED ONLY IN A NAME.

The strifes between conflicting political parties, the arrogance and corruptness of wealth the distress of poverty, the hired assassin, the blood-stained streets and halls, led the law-abiding citizens, even the class most patriotic,—men of letters, like Horace,—those who had done all in their power to save the republic, to cry out for a king, or a military depot, for any usurper who could maintain order, and who would promise to restore prosperity to the suffering commonwealth. Usurpation in such an hour is not a crime; it is, upon the ground of a greater good to a greater number, positively demanded of one who has ability and power to bring order out of confusion. It was no longer a question whether the Roman republic should continue; the question was, rather, who upon its ruins, shall establish the Roman empire?

THE EMPIRE.

Cæsar came to the front for a brief season, but the conspiracy of Brutus and Cassius, which resulted in the murder of Cæsar, shows that there were a few who would not submit gracefully. They revolted, not through patriotism, however, but because they were ambitious for the place held by Cæsar. The death of Cæsar was doubtless a loss to the Roman people. They needed a ruler; they were not likely to find one superior to the assassinated dictator.

After the murder of Cæsar, Octavius, his nephew, afterwards Emperor Augustus, who had been adopted by the childless Cæsar, allied himself with Antony and Lipidus to rule the empire. They first gained over the soldiers by promising to distribute lands among them; they next rid themselves of enemies by the terrible process of proscription. The names of persons whom they disliked were written upon a list which was publicly posted. A man was at liberty to kill the proscribed, and in many cases large rewards were offered the assassins. Men were proscribed whose only offense was that they had been friendly to some opponent, or that they were rich. Death was threatened also to any person who should dare conceal or aid any proscribed person. Two thousand equites and three hundred Senators were massacred in a short

time, while hundreds of the best citizens fled to Sicily, and other places more distant. In the year 29 B.C., the Senate conferred upon Augustus the title of Emperor for life. The Roman Republic, which in fact had been practically dead for many years, was now buried, and the people hailed with delight the end of feuds and the establishment of a monarchy.

GOVERNMENTAL ADAPTATION.

Here in Italy were the same inspiring scenery, the same rich fields, the same climate, essentially the same blood; but a degenerate and demoralized people had become such that they could no longer live safely except under the strong hand of a monarch. Here, therefore, is an illustration of what has more than once appeared in history, namely, a form of government well adapted to one age and one condition of people poorly adapted to another. Therefore a given form of government which should be fought for under one class of circumstances, should not, under a different class, be defended by the drawing of a single sword.

Augustus reigned forty-three years (B.C. 29—A.D. 14). He restored peace. Rome, the den of robbers, was renovated and rendered safe to dwell in. The people, for the most part, seemed to have forgotten their past political freedom, losing all interest in political matters. The monarch, without popular remonstrance, gradually assumed the different powers of the State in his own person. He excluded the "upstarts" from the senate, limited the number of senators, then limited their meetings, and finally, in public affairs, ignored that body entirely. He had no ministers of State, but sought the advice of personal friends of acknowledged ability. The government of Augustus was beneficent, but republicans in all modern republics, who are wont to express a sigh for a monarchy, should reflect that after Augustus came the tyrant Tiberius, the cruel Caligula, the detested Nero, and the impious Domitian.

UNDER THE RULE OF THE ROMAN PONTIFFS.

After the emperors followed the period of invasions. Alaric the Vizigoth sacked Rome; Attila destroyed other cities in Italy, and Oodacer brought the empire completely to an end. Theodoric, king of the Ostragoths, established a monarchy which was overthrown by Belisorius and Narsetes. The Lombards succeeded for a while, but their kingdom was overthrown by Charlemagne, and the laws of the State gave way to the ecclesiastical canons of the Roman Pontiffs —800 years after the fall of the republic.

CONCLUSION.

Reflections concerning the future of the great American Republic are in order. The history of the United States embraces one hundred years, and including our colonial history about three hundred years. We seem content and have great hopes concerning the future of our country. But what, possibly, may be the fate of our republic a thousand years hence, when it shall arrive to the age of the ancient republics when they fell and ceased to exist? What is to be the ultimate character of the inhabitants of this western continent, when millions more of European peoples have come to our shores; when Mexico, Canada, Cuba, and the Sandwich Islands shall be annexed, and when the Asiatic shall become so numerous as to be able to command the right to vote; when the Joss-house and the Mosque of the Moslem shall become as numerous upon our streets as the Synagogues and the Christian church? When density of population shall be as great in our cities as in Carthage and Rome; when farms shall be abandoned and absorbed in vast estates, and worked, if at all, only by the most inferior of the people; when the rich have become richer and the poor poorer.

The observation and experience in the last quarter of a century, embracing the unhappy period of our civil war, has not only led many of our best and most thoughtful people to consider upon these things, but even to express their fears for the stability of our own institutions; and some even have not only doubted the efficiency and power of Republicanism as a form of government, but, moreover, have expressed a preference for a monarchial government. We have passed through (if we have got through) an alarming period of peculation and plunder, and of the accumulation of fabulous individual wealth, plundered from the public treasury or acquired through mismanagement of fiduciary trusts, defalcation of bank officers, and the wrecking of railroad corporations. And confidence is nigh lost in the virtue of State and national legislative bodies. Our best assurance of maintaining the republic for another hundred years seems to lie in the extent of our unoccupied domain, the great number of small farmers and rural homes of the people, our law for the descent and distribution of property among heirs in every State, and in the American system of common schools, colleges and universities.

Others have reflected and written upon the future of the United States, but no one has presented the possibility more vividly than Macauley, in a letter addressed to the author of the "Life of Jefferson," in 1857:

"I have long been convinced that institutions purely democratic must sooner or later destroy liberty or civilization, or both. In Europe, where the popula-

tion is dense, the effects of such institutions would be almost instantaneous. * * * You may think that your country enjoys an exemption from these evils. I frankly own to you that I am of a very different opinion. Your fate, I believe to be certain, though it is deferred by a physical cause. As long as you have a boundless extent of fertile and unoccupied land, your laboring population will be far more at ease than the laboring population of the Old World, and while that is the case, the Jefferson politics may continue to exist without causing any fatal calamity. But the time will come when new England will be as thickly peopled as old England. Wages will be as low, and will fluctuate as much with you as with us. You will have your Manchesters and Birminghams, and in those Manchesters and Birminghams hundreds of thousands of artisans will assuredly be out of work. Then your institutions will be fairly brought to the test. * * * It is quite plain that your Government will never be able to restrain a distressed and discontented majority. For with you the majority is the Government, and has the rich, who are always a minority, absolutely at its mercy. The day will come when in the State of New York a multitude of people, none of whom has had more than half a breakfast, or expects to have more than half a dinner, will choose a legislature. Is it possible to doubt what sort of a legislature will be chosen? On one side is a statesman preaching patience, respect for vested rights, strict observance of public faith. On the other is a demagogue ranting about the tyranny of the capitalists and usurers, and asking why any body should be permitted to drink champagne and ride in a carriage while thousands of honest folks are in want of necessaries. Which of the two candidates is likely to be preferred by a workingman who hears his children cry for more bread? I seriously apprehend that you will, in some such season of adversity as I have described, do things which will prevent prosperity from returning; that you will act like people who should, in a year of scarcity, devour all the seed-corn, and thus make the next year, not of scarcity, but of absolute famine. There will be, I fear, spoliation. The spoliation will increase the distress. There is nothing to stop you. Your constitution is all sail and no anchor. As I said before, when a society has entered on its downward progress, either civilization or liberty must perish. Either some Cæsar or Napoleon will seize the reins of government with a strong hand, or your republic will be as fearfully plundered and laid waste by barbarians in the twentieth century as the Roman empire was in the fifth, with this difference, that the Huns and Vandals who ravaged the Roman Empire came from without, and that your Huns and Vandals will have been engendered within your own country by your own institutions."

SUPPLEMENTAL.

LATER REPUBLICS.

LONG after the final extinction of both republican and imperial Rome, or about the eleventh century, the territory in the northern part of Italy, extending from the Alps to the Po, and from Lago Maggiore and the Ticino to Lago di Garda and the Mincio, contained several cities which achieved and formed independent governments. But between these cities there was no federal compact, though in times of danger they formed powerful leagues. Such a union they formed by which they defeated the terrible German prince, Frederick Barbarossa, in 1176. These were the

LOMBARD CITIES,

Milan, Piazenza, Modena, Cremona, and Bologna. They were the centers of a remarkable revival of commerce, art and learning. Italy once more seemed to be the home of freedom, and of civil and political prosperity.

But it is the same old story with these municipal republics: civil contentions between nobles and ruling families, and the democratic or common people, based chiefly upon a form of government—whether it should be purely democratic or oligarchic—alternating for years between peace and hostilities. Finally, social and political quiet gave place entirely to altercation, wrangling and political proscription. The forms of a free constitution were maintained, but they were empty forms. The magistrates, who were nominally endowed with judicial and executive authority, were the mere puppets of the party chieftains who had called them into life. A government of faction was substituted for a government of law. Citizens were proscribed by each dominant party, their houses were sacked and fired, and their property confiscated. Almost every stone of those mediæval palaces, which had withstood the ravages of so many wars, could tell a tale of frightful tragedies, and of the play of ungovernable passions; of seditions, revolutions, and riots which surged around their base and beat against their gloomy gigantic walls.

Civil dissensions in these cities, and others, as in other historic States, had weakened and demoralized the citizenship. The people, being in perpetual danger, lost their love of country. Usurpers and invaders easily assumed the reins of government. Padua fell under the power of Eccelino; Treviso surrendered to imperial arms; Vicenza, Brescia, and Faenza, were taken by assault; Milan yielded to an imperial form of government, and Bologna quietly submitted to the Visconti. The Visconti gradually extended their conquests until all northern Italy, except the Venetian dogado, surrendered to their domination. Florence remained longest the champion of constitutional liberty, but she in time fell under the Medici and the Pontiffs.

GENOA.

In a small bay off the gulf of Genoa, at the southern end of the Ligurian Appenines, is a city overlooking the sea which has experienced more political revolutions than any other in Europe. It is an old city. It had friendly relations with Rome and Carthage more than two hundred years before Christ. She established a free Constitution in the tenth century. It was a city of "superb merchant princes," who supplied the markets of Constantinople, traded on the shores of the Caspian Sea, dealt in the costly merchandise of India, and extended her commerce to the remotest East. Genoa was a Republic of conquest, and nearly all the cities of the Mediterranean became tributary to her. History repeats itself: Aristocracy, wealth, and democratic tumult. Then "captains of liberty" usurp the government. Then the council of twenty-four, taken equally from nobles and plebians. Prosperity for a while under the leadership of Andrew Doria; nearly destroyed by the plague in 1656; and subsequently is absorbed by Austria, and the Republic is lost forever, except to history.

VENICE.

In 452 of our era, Attila with his horde of Huns, swept over Northern Italy, leaving desolation in his track. A few families of culture and wealth escaped to a group of small islands in the Adriatic, inhabited by a few fishermen. From these settlers, wealthy refugees, sprung the unique, charming, and proud Ven-

ice. Two hundred years later she had an independent government, her rulers being called "maritime tribunes." In about 697 their chief ruler was called Doge, which continued about sixty years, and the government inclined to be autocratic. Democratic sentiments prevailed in 1033, and the national assembly abolished hereditary succession. Venice grew in riches and in influence. She was the queen of Mediterranean commerce, and ruled over extensive colonial domains. The Venetians have been called the Tyrians of the Middle Ages. In the fourteenth century Venetian argosies were upon every sea; her merchandise crowded every port, and was carried far into inner Asia. Her schools were celebrated, her art renowned, and she was accomplished in all the refinements of the age. In military achievements she was conspicuous, and all the Lombard cities eventually yielded to her dominion.

Universal suffrage prevailed. At fixed periods the three estates of the Commonwealth, the Upper, the Middle, and Lower, were convoked in the Church of St. Mark, in the capital, to deliberate upon public affairs; and in the national assembly the plebian was the equal of the proudest patrician. But soon after the popular triumphs of 1033, the strife between the aristocracy and the commonalty became bitter. The democracy not satisfied with what had been gained and enjoyed, clamored at every step for more. The nobility, on the other hand, were constantly plotting against the democracy, and seeking in various ways, to resist popular representation and appropriate to themselves even ducal prerogatives. So the republic worried for two hundred years and until the assassination of a Doge (1172). This act proved fatal to the democracy.

FRANCE.

Three experiments of popular government have been made in France,—the first, even, within the memory of the "oldest inhabitant,"—1789, 1848 and 1871. The French are a nation of vascillation and surprises. The last great surprise is the rapidity with which the country rallied from the Franco-German war; the ease with which she passed from an empire to a republic; her great activity in agriculture, manufactures and commerce; her military strength, and her national credit. Amid hopes, anxieties and fears, the question asked by the friends of republican institutions is: How long?

Unlike our own country, either now or at the period of our Revolution, the politics of France, as indeed all Europe, is in the main ecclesiastical, and such

issues are for all time, and can never be settled either by the ballot or the sword; and unhappily, the two great hierarchies, no less than the kings, alike regard a republican government as an abomination.

Popular government has some true and able friends; and the publicists of France write ably thereon, but heretofore their disciples and followers were too frequently egotists, doctrinaires, and impracticables, who, when such a government was in their hands, were wont to load it with Fourierism and fraternity, and charge it with the unbearable burden of supplying every human want, besides spending-money for Saints' days. A government whose president is simply an executive of the laws, is to them incomprehensible and less desirable than anarchy. The mass of the rural population take no more interest in the government than they do in the cyclones in the sun. They think as the priest thinks, and do as he says. The merchants of Marseilles and the shopkeepers of Paris, the silk manufacturers of the Rhone, the makers of porcelain and the artists in Gobelin tapestry prefer the empire. And fashion, born of luxurious courts, and worshiping the Montespans, the Pompadours, and the *dames du lac*, and flourishing upon the treasury of royalty, looks with disdain upon the sobriety, simplicity and economy of a republic. What French woman, (or American, for that matter,) covets the surplus garments of a President's wife? There is poetry and romance in the robes of Eugenia, but neither in Madame Thiers' "best gown."

Finally, there is no use in ignoring the fact that after two thousand years of royal subjection, social caste, inequality before the law, and semi-serfdom, the great mass of the people, no less than the great sovereigns of Europe, those divinely favored persons who inherit governments and peoples like lands and chattels, and talk of "my government" and "my people;" and even the thousand and one little kings and knights, now recently absorbed to some extent in the German empire, and which the Spanish historian and statesman, Castelar, so neatly characterises as "the relics of the middle ages, *ignes-fatui* in the graveyard of history," all ignore the inalienable rights of man, and make their constant and perpetual protest against constitutional freedom.

MEXICO.

When, in 1810, Spain was embarrassed by the Peninsular War, all Mexico seemed stirred with a desire for independence. Insurrection followed insurrection, led alternately by military men of mixed blood, priests, out-

laws and desperadoes; none of whom, however, intended at first to establish a republic, but desired only a change of imperial rulers. Spain would not allow a native to take the Mexican crown. Thereupon, Iterbide, the "Liberator," was proclaimed Emperor. After the fall of Iterbide, the army being in the ascendant, organized a republic, and was thus unexpectedly freed entirely from Spanish domination. Then followed a period of intrigue and revolution, during which different generals of the army struggled to gain or hold supreme power. In 1822, Santa Anna proclaimed a republic. The vicissitudes of his rule for a few years have been expressed as "one month sitting in the presidential chair, armed with almost despotic power, the next a refugee and exile." A constitution modeled after that of the United States was formed in 1833, but soon overthrown by the imperial and priestly party. Then there were twenty years more of military domination, and the fifth dictatorship of Santa Anna came to an end. The present constitution was adopted in 1857, interfered with only by French intervention and the brief empire of Maximilian.

The population is ten millions, more than one-half of whom are pure Indians, the rest comprising a mixture of various races, the whites or European-descended inhabitants numbering only about half a million.

The prophetic vision of Alaman, the historian of Mexico, touching the future of this republic of mixed races, is sad and solemn: "Mexico will be, without doubt, a land of prosperity from its natural advantages, but it will not be so for the races which now inhabit it. As it seemed the destiny of the people who established themselves therein at different epochs to perish from the face of it, leaving hardly a memory of their existence; even as the nation which built the edifices of Palenque, and those which we admire in Yucatan, was destroyed without its being known what it was or how it disappeared; even as the Toltecs perished at the hands of barbarous tribes coming from the North, no record remaining but the pyramids of Cholulu and Toetihuacan; and, finally, even as the ancient Mexican fell beneath the power of the Spaniards, the country gaining infinitely by this change of dominion, but its ancient masters being overthrown; so likewise its present inhabitants shall be ruined and hardly obtain the compassion they have merited; and the Mexican nation of our days shall have applied to it what a celebrated Latin poet said of the most famous personages of Roman history—*Stat magni nominis umbra*—nothing more remains than the shadow of a name illustrious in another time.

NUMBER NINE.

GERMANY.

Gott mit uns!

GOD WITH US!

The German Empire was re-established 1870–71 by the unanimous and victorious uprising of the German People.

EDITED BY
CHARLES E. BOLTON.

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SATURDAY EVENING, - - - - - - - JANUARY 26, 1884.

NINTH ENTERTAINMENT.

MUSICAL PRELUDE, from 6:40 to 7:15. BY THE EDUCATIONAL BUREAU ORCHESTRA.
C. BILLSON, Director. - - - - - J. M. LELAND, Leader.

PROGRAMME.

1. March—Salutation.....G. Wiegand.
2. Overture—Il Turco in Italia.....Rossini.
3. Medley Selection by Baer.....(Arranged by Leland).
4. Cavatina for Cornet.....(Performed by E. W. COFFIN).....E. Hasselmann.

RUSSIAN HYMN, (See first page of Music) - - - - BY THE AUDIENCE.

LECTURE PRELUDE, from 7:15 to 7:45, - - - - JUDGE J. E. INGERSOLL.
SUBJECT: "Civil Service."

SINGING SCHOOL, 7:45 to 8:00, - - Conducted by PROF. N. COE STEWART.
☞ Audience please stand first five minutes. ☜

PRESIDING OFFICER, - - - - - - - - - - DR. G. C. E. WEBER.

CONCERT, 8:00 to 9:30, - - BY THE FISK UNIVERSITY JUBILEE SINGERS.

Director—F. J. LOUDIN. *Sopranos*—Miss JENNIE JACKSON, Miss MATTIE L. LAWRENCE, Miss PATTI MALONE, Miss MILLIE E. SEALS. *Contraltos*—Miss LAURA A. SCOTT, Miss MAGGIE E. WILSON. *Bassos*—Mr. F. J. LOUDIN, Mr. B. W. THOMAS. *Tenors*—Mr. GEO. E. BARRETT, Mr. C. W. PAYNE. *Pianist*—Miss WILLEY A. BENCHLEY.

PART FIRST.—Steal Away to Jesus—With the Lord's Prayer. My Way is Cloudy. Nobody Knows the Trouble I See I'm Rolling Through an Unfriendly World. Selection. Stand on the Walls of Zion. Selection The Gospel Train.

PART SECOND.—Part Song (Selected). Bright Sparkles in the Churchyard. Selection. King Emanuel. Selection. Didn't My Lord Deliver Daniel. I've Been Redeemed. Swing Low, Sweet Chariot—With the Benediction, or Good Night.

The programme is made up principally from the "Slave Songs," or "Spirituals," sung by the Negro Slaves of the Southern States.

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SPECIAL NOTICES.—Tenth and Last Entertainment, Saturday Evening, February 3rd, Great Debate on Woman Suffrage. Mrs. MARY A. LIVERMORE *vs.* Prof. VAN BUREN DENSLOW.

BESSER ohne Abendessen zu Bette gehen, als mit Schulden aufstehen.
(BETTER go to bed without supper than rise with debts.)

GOD only helps when man can help no more.—*Schiller.*

THE truest wisdom is resolute determination.—*Napoleon.*

TELL me who a man's friends are, and I will tell you what he is.—*Gibbon.*

HE WHO would govern others, first should be master of himself.—*Massinger.*

TALENTS are nurtured best in solitude, but character on life's tempestuous sea.—*Goethe.*

MEN possessing small souls are generally the authors of great evil.—*Downey's Proverbs.*

ALL that is most worthy in a man, he must work out and conquer for himself.—*Richter.*

ALL cares appear as large again as they are, owing to their emptiness and darkness.—*Richter.*

HUMANITY is never so beautiful as when praying for forgiveness, or else forgiving another.—*Richter.*

TO KEEP your own secrets is wisdom, but to expect others to keep them is folly.—*Downey's Proverbs.*

OF YOUR neighbor's faults see little, hear little, and speak less than you either see or hear.—*Downey's Proverbs.*

"WAITER, take away this soup; it's as cold as ice." "Oh, you must be mistaken, sir! I tasted it as I was bringing it, and it's nice and hot, sir!"

THE following excellent advice was given by an aged minister to a younger brother: "Speak short; the brethren will tell you if you don't speak long enough."

THE MOST agreeable of all companions is a simple, frank man, without any high pretensions to an oppressive greatness; above all of a golden temper, and steadfast as an anchor.—*Lessing.*

"ARE you going on this train?" "I am." "Have you any baggage?" "No." "Well, my friend, you can do me a favor, and it won't cost you anything. You see I've two rousing big trunks, and they always make me pay extra for them. You can get one checked on your ticket, and we'll euchre them. See?" "Yes, I see; but I haven't any ticket." "But I thought you said you were going on this train?" "So I am. I'm the conductor."

A SERIOUS QUESTION.

This Illustration by courtesy of The New York Life Insurance Co.

RUSSIAN HYMN.

With sustained tone. Words by REV S. F. SMITH.

1. God ev - er glo - ri - ous, Sov'-reign of na - tions,
2. Still may thy bless - ing rest, Fath - er most Ho - ly,

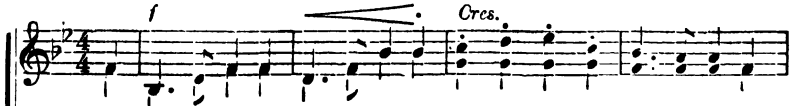
Wav - ing the ban - ner of peace o'er our land,
O - ver each moun - tain, rock, riv - er and shore,

Thine is the vic - to - ry, Thine the sal - va - tion,
Sing hal - le - lu - jah Shout in ho - san - nas,

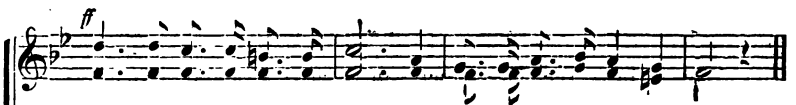
ff Strong to de - liv - er, Own we thy hand.
God keep our coun - try, Free ev - er more.

THE GUARD ON THE RHINE.

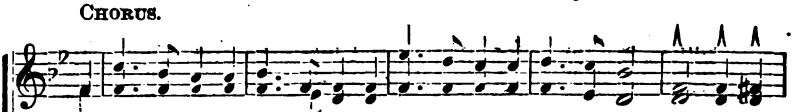
(DIE WACHT AM RHEIN.)



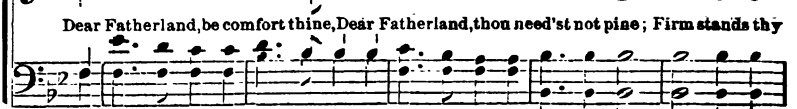
1. There comes a call like thunder's peal, The break-ers roar, the clank of steel; The
2. By hundred thousands forth they stream, Their eyes like flashing light'ning gleam, The
3. To heav'n they raised their gleaming eyes. The heroes saw them from their skies, And
4. Loud rings the oath, the wa-ters flow, In the free breeze the banners blow; The



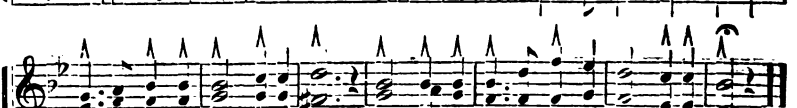
Rhine! the Rhine! the glorious Rhine! Who will protect the riv-er's line?
Ger-man hon-est, strong and brave; These will the sa-cred land-mark save.
swore, with yearning for the strife, "Dear is the free Rhine as our life!"
Rhine! the Rhine! un-fet-tered Rhine! All Ger-man-y will guard its line.



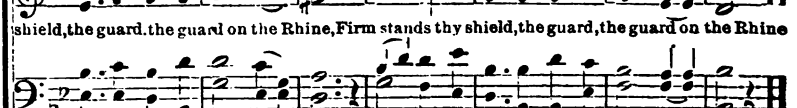
CHORUS.



Dear Fatherland, be comfort thine, Dear Fatherland, thou need'st not pine; Firm stands thy



shield, the guard, the guard on the Rhine, Firm stands thy shield, the guard, the guard on the Rhine



GERMANY.

COMPILED BY ARTHUR H. PALMER,
Professor of the German Language and Literature, in Adelbert College.

GERMANY is the name applied to a portion of Central Europe, the extent of which has varied in the course of history. By it we mean to-day the German Empire, constituted in 1871. This Empire is much smaller than the territory inhabited by Germans, the latter having an area of about 340,000, and the former of about 208,000 English square miles.

THE ANCIENT GERMANS.

The Ancient Germans, like almost all the nations of Europe, came from northwest Asia. They followed the Celts, and were followed by the Slavs, who now dwell chiefly in Russia, Servia, and Bulgaria. It was in the second century B.C., that the German races became the ruling races in Western and Central Europe.

Character of the People. The ancient Germans were a tall and vigorous race, with long fair hair, and "fiercely blue eyes." They wore mantles of fur or of coarse woolen stuff, thrown over the shoulders, and fastened by a thorn or pin. They lived in slight wooden huts, the inner walls of which were roughly colored, and in which the cattle were sometimes accommodated with the family. War and hunting were the favorite occupations of the men; and when engaged neither in hunting nor fighting, they often lay idly by the fire-place, leaving all work to the women and to those men who were unable to bear arms. They liked social gatherings. Although violent and cruel when excited, they were rarely treacherous. In general they were kind and considerate. They cherished the memory of illustrious ancestors, and listened often, and with delight, to songs of their famous deeds.

Political Constitution. The bulk of the people were freemen, and were grouped in villages. The land around a village—its "marks"—belonged to the village as a whole, and was periodically divided among the inhabitants. A number of villages made a hundred. Each village had its chief, elected by the

freemen, but the important chiefs were the heads of the hundreds, also appointed by the freemen. Some tribes had kings, but their only distinction was that they were chosen from particular families, supposed to have sprung from the gods. The authority of the chief was extremely limited. Ancient German society was very democratic.

Army. The army was not a distinct institution. It was made up of the whole body of freemen, all of whom were liable at any moment to be called to service. Their weapons were shields, spears, javelins, clubs and battle-axes.

Religion. The ancient Germans believed in and worshiped various gods. The three leading ones were Woden, his brother Frey, and his son Thor, who with their children were called the Asa gods. These gods were summer gods, and their enemies were the powers of cold and darkness. In the old German notions, all that was good was mixed up with light; all that was bad, with darkness and cold. Priests had considerable influence, especially in the public assembly and in attacks upon an enemy.

THE GERMANS AND THE ROMANS.

The Romans, before the time of Julius Cæsar, knew little or nothing of the people living east of the Rhine and north of the Danube, though some German tribes had invaded the Roman Empire toward the end of the second century B.C. Cæsar and the generals of Augustus tried to overcome Germany, and thought they had done it; but when the Romans attempted to turn their fancied rule into real possession of the country, they were ignominiously defeated, and Germany was liberated by the great chief, Hermann, in the year 9 A.D. Yet the Romans, in the course of time, acquired great influence throughout the country, and they gradually attained considerable possessions east of the river Rhine, and south of the river Main. But towards the end of the second century the relations of the Romans and the Germans began to be reversed. The Germans became terrible to the Romans, and remained so for many years. There were fights all along the line of the Roman empire, which their tribes often broke through.

WANDERINGS OF GERMAN TRIBES.

But nothing very remarkable happened until the sixth century, when there was a movement and change of place among them. This seems to have been caused by the Huns, a savage tribe of the great Slavic or Tartar stock of nations, who came from the East, and drove the German nation, brave as they were, before them for a time.

The Goths. Then it was that the Goths came over the Danube, and, dividing into the Eastern and the Western Goths, sacked Rome, conquered the Northern coast of Africa, and founded two kingdoms, in Spain and in Northern Italy.

The Vandals. Then the Vandals followed the Goths, and took Africa from them.

The Lombards (or Longbeards), took the lands in Northern Italy which had been held by the Goths, founded a kingdom and called it Lombardy.

The Burgundians (or Castle men), gained the southeastpart of what is now France, and founded a kingdom there.

The Saxons (Sæx or axe men), settled on the banks of the river Elbe, whence went out bands of men who conquered the southern part of Britain.

The Franks (free men), were in the meantime coming over the Rhine, first plundering the northern part of what is now France, and then settling there.

These six German nations thus spread over all the western half of the Roman Empire, from the shores of the Baltic to the Mediterranean, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Carpathian Mountains.

THE FRANKS.

The most famous of the German tribes were the Franks. The kings of these Franks were called Merovingians. The history of Germany from the middle of the sixth to the middle of the ninth century, is that of France also. Therefore, for this period the reader is referred to "Modern France,"—No. 1, of the "Books for the People."

KING KONRAD AND THE SAXON RULERS.

When the line of Charlemagne was worn out, the German nobles chose another Frank, Konrad, count of Franconia, for their king (912), and when, at the end of six years, he died, he bade them choose Count Henrich, of Saxony, (917). Heinrich was hawking when the news was brought to him, and he is therefore called Heinrich the Fowler. He was wise and brave, and brought all the great dukedoms of Germany under his rule. He had great wars with the Magyars in Hungary. Otto I., the Great, (936–973) succeeded him. He subdued Denmark and Poland; founded bishoprics wherever he conquered the heathen, and sent missions with them. He became king of the Lombards, in Italy. He had another terrible war with the Magyars. In the end, Otto had nearly as large an empire as Charlemagne. He was a good and pious, wise and warlike man.

THE SAXON EMPERORS.

Nothing of importance was accomplished during the reign of the three Emperors, Otto II., Otto III., and St. Heinrich II., whose reigns extended from 973 to 1024. In the year 1000, it was daily expected that the end of the world would come, and this had a great effect upon the whole world. Heinrich II., was crowned Emperor at Rome, and took the title of King of the Romans. An emperor was usually crowned four times—at Aachen, as King of the Romans, which really meant of Germany; at Pavia, of Italy; at Monza, of Lombardy, with an iron crown, said to be made partly of one of the nails of the cross; and at Rome, as Kaiser, or Emperor.

THE FRANCONIAN LINE.

The Emperors of this line were Konrad II., the Salic (1024–1039), Heinrich III. (1039–1054); Heinrich IV. (1054–1106), Heinrich V. (1106–1114). All these monarchs had great struggles with the Popes at Rome. The papacy gained solid advantages in the end, for its general authority became much greater than it had ever been before. The papacy claiming to be the highest power, made war upon the Emperor himself, instead of acknowledging any inferiority. The German Kings lost much of their old power. The foundations of monarchy were sapped. The princes, siding with the Popes in order to help themselves, steadily advanced toward independence. It was Heinrich IV. who, bareheaded and barefooted, in the hair shirt of a penitent, made that bitter pilgrimage to Canossa, which has become proverbial in the struggles of Protestant Germany against Catholic Rome. He was kept three days doing penance in the court of the castle, before the Pope would see him.

THE HOHENSTAUFENS.

After Lothar II., (1125-1137), and Konrad III., (1137-1152), Germany passed under one of the greatest of her sovereigns, Frederick I., whose red beard made the Italians call him Barbarossa. He was a man of large and noble nature. The best years of his life were spent in Italy, where, in his struggles with the cities of Lombardy, and with Pope Alexander III., he chiefly acquired his fame. He restored the ancient fame of Germany in the neighboring countries. He established internal quiet, and granted liberties to the cities which flourished during his reign. He broke up the two greatest duchies, Brunswick and Saxony, vainly hoping thus to strengthen the imperial power. He took part in the third crusade, but was drowned in a small river before reaching the Holy Land.

He was followed by Heinrich VI. (1189-1197); Philip (1198-1208), and Otto IV. (1209-1218), and then came Frederick II., (1218-1250), who was

personally the most brilliant of the German kings. He had the adventurous spirit of his times, with modern intellectural freedom and culture. He loved poetry, science and art, and was a great statesman. With great power of will, he yet knew how to adapt himself to circumstances. For outward splendor his position was never surpassed, since, when he died, he possessed no fewer than six crowns—the imperial crown, and the crowns of Germany, Burgundy, Lombardy, Sicily and Jerusalem. But Germany profitted not at all by his magnificent qualities, for he spent most of his time out of Germany, and his chief interest was in Italy. At this time Prussia was conquered for christianity and civilization by the knights of the Teutonic Order, who here slowly built up the State which has since been so promnient in history.

King Konrad IV. (1250-1254), closed the line of the Hohenstaufens.

THE AGE OF THE HOHENSTAUFEN EMPERORS.

This is, in many respects, the most interesting age in the older history of Germany. We see heroic devotion and great selfishness side by side; gay enjoyment of the world, and lofty spirituality. Chivalry was in full bloom, and taught manliness, courtesy, and generosity. Women never held a higher place, and never responded more nobly to the honors heaped upon them. The crusades and contact with Italy opened new worlds, while the genius of the nation flowered in the poems of the Minnesingers (Love-singers.) There was everywhere a feeling for art which found expression in magnificent churches in the Gothic style. The problems of government were seen in new lights, as the Roman law passed from Italy into Germany. It was an epoch of life, movement and color.

Political Character. Yet it was in this age that the German nation utterly lost its political strength. The country was divided into a number of small duchies, which could with difficulty be made to act together. There were prelates, dukes, palsgraves, margraves, landgraves, counts—forming together a large body—each of whom claimed to have no superior save the emperor, whose authority they and their predecessors had slowly destroyed. Even petty knights or barons, who possessed little more than the rude towers from which they went out to rob passing travellers, recognized no law save their own will. The imperial cities, which now were really free republics formed another independent element. There were also mediate nobles, and mediate towns which acknowledged the rule of some lord other than the sovereign. Beneath all, forming the mass of the agricultural population, were the peasants and the serfs, the latter attached to the land they were born on, the former ground down by taxes.

THE GREAT INTERREGNUM.

This is the period from 1254 to 1278. After the date of Konrad IV., William of Holland received a nominal allegiance for two years. Then there was a double election, that of Alphonso, King of Castile, and Richard, Earl of Cornwall, brother of Henry III. of England. Alphonso never came to Germany, and Richard visited the country only three times. During this period both princes and towns grew more independent. The cities began to form leagues which the greatest princes and combination of princes could not afford to despise. Of these leagues the chief at this time was the Rhenish Confederation, which was founded by Mainz and Worms, and which, within a year of its formation, included about 70 cities, among them Cologne, Strasburg, Basels, and towns far to the east and north, such as Nuremberg, Erfurt, and Bremen. Very famous became also the league called the Hansa, which was formed some time before, and at one time contained sixty-six cities and forty-four confederates. The city of Hamburg and a few others still enjoy a privileged position in consequence of having belonged to this league.

RUDOLF I. (1278-1291.)

The German princes enjoyed the freedom from all higher authority that arose from their having two absent foreign rival kings, but Germany was in a dreadful state of confusion, and bad customs sprang up which lasted for several centuries. Fist-right, the right of the strongest, was the only rule outside the cities, and even the bishops and great abbots were often fierce fighting men. The nobles lived for the most part by plunder and robbery. All the learning and civilization that the great emperors had brought in was passing away except in the cities. Germany was falling behind all other nations in everything praiseworthy.

Pope Gregory X., finding that no king was chosen, sent the electors word that if they did not choose a king, he should send them one. Thereupon, they chose Count Rudolph, of Hapsburg. He was a good and brave man who was very much beloved at home, but he made no essential change in the condition of Germany. The supreme object of his life was to add to the greatness of his own family, and thus he made himself memorable as the founder of the house of Hapsburg in Austria, which from his time formed one of the most influential forces in the national life of Germany.

Adolf of Nassau (1291-1298), is said to have been the poorest prince who ever sat on the throne of Germany. He was fierce and grasping, and made himself much hated.

Albert I. (1298-1308), Rudolf's son was chosen to be Adolf's successor. Like his father he made it his principal object to extend the power of his house. His schemes were cut short by a violent death. He was a hard, stern man, with a strongly practical intelligence. He encouraged the cities rather than the princes.

Heinrich VII. (1308-1313), Albert's successor, was Henry, Count of Luxembourg. He did not seek the selfish advantage of his family, but was resolved to restore the old power of the Empire in Italy, and to free Rome from the interference of the French. He crossed the Alps, marched to Rome, and was crowned there, but lived too short a time to fulfill the hopes of his friends.

LOUIS IV.

Louis IV. (1313 1347), was wayward, treacherous and selfish. He quarreled with, and betrayed neighboring kings, and had struggles with the Popes. In 1338 a great meeting of the electors was held at Reuse on the Rhine, and the princes declared that the German King and Emperor, if appointed by a majority of the electors, received his authority from God alone, and needed not the consent of the Pope in the exercise of his rights. This reign was very important in German history. The claim of the papacy to political supremacy received a death-blow. Seeds of the Reformation were sowed. The Government of the imperial cities became more democratic. Had Louis IV. been a great king, he might have secured for Germany a truly national life.

KARL IV., (1347-1378.)

Karl of Luxembourg, the eldest son of King Johann, of Bohemia, employed all sorts of trickery to gain his ends; and, as he was very persistent, he came to wear the crowns of Bohemia, of Germany, of Burgundy, of Lombardy, and of the Empire; and he added to his native kingdom Lusatia, Silesia and Brandenburg. He was called the Father of Bohemia, but the step-father of Germany, for which he cared only so far as it could add to his personal welfare. Besides, the Empire was visited by the *Black Death*, the horrible disease that raged all over Europe, and especially in Germany. Whole villages were left without an inhabitant, and even the cats, dogs and pigs died. The edict of 1356, that was called the Golden Bull, from the golden ball or bubble in which its seal was enclosed, is a very noted document, for it fixed the Constitution of the Kingdom of Germany, and of the Holy Roman Empire. It made seven electors, and declared that each in his own province should be a sovereign prince. The three spiritual electors were the Archbishops of Mainz, Kæln, and Trier; the four temporal were the King of Bohemia, the Markgraf of

Brandenburg, the Pfalzgraf of the Rhine, and the Duke of Saxony. Karl founded the first German university at Prague. In the year 1378 began the great schism which did so much harm to the church. Two Popes were chosen by different sets of cardinals. One lived at Avignon in France, and the other at Rome. England and Germany held with the Roman Pope, France with the Avignon Pope.

Wenzel (1378-1400), son of Karl IV., succeeded his father at the age of seventeen. He was a man of rude coarse nature, strangely and wildly cruel, who left Germany to itself.

Ruprecht (1400-1410). In 1400 Wenzel was deposed, and the Pfalzgraf Ruprecht of the Rhine put in his place. He did little.

Siegmund (1410-1438) was a clever man with good intentions, but vain and flighty, and with the restless spirit of all the Luxembourg family. He was anxious to bring the great schism to an end, for matters were now worse than ever, an attempt at a council having been held which had deposed both Popes and elected another. But as neither would obey, there were now three popes.

JOHN HUSS.

The need was the more felt, that the teaching of the English John Wickliffe had been brought to Bohemia, and found favors at the University of Prague with two Bohemian scholars, John Huss, professor of philosophy, and Jerome Faulfisch, a master of arts. Wenzel had encouraged them. Hussite, preaching, had spread through Bohemia, and the people were crying out against the Pope's claim to be universal Bishop, and against many of the horrid corruptions that had grown up in the church. Siegmund brought together a great council of the Church at Constance, by which John Huss was condemned and burnt at the stake. This atrocious act, for which Siegmund was largely responsible, caused a revolt to break out in Bohemia, headed by the blind General Ziska. This revolt was not put down for fifteen years.

BRANDENBURG AND THE HOHENZOLLERNS.

Siegmund never had enough money for his wants, and borrowed much. In return for 400,000 gulden he granted to his friend Friedrich, Count of Hohenzollern, first as a pledge, afterwards as a permanent possession, the district called the march of Brandenburg. Thus Brandenburg passed into the hands of the family, under whom it was destined to become the center of the mighty Kingdom of Prussia.

HAPSBURG DYNASTY.

Albrecht II. (1438-1440) was succeeded by Albert, Duke of Austria, who, as his son-in-law, became King of Bohemia and Hungary. The German crown was henceforth always conferred on a member of the house of Hapsburg until the male line died out; and the same family never willingly lost its grip of the two countries which now fell to it, and of which it ultimately gained complete possession.

Friedrich III. (1440-1493) reigned longer than any other emperor. He was a solemn trifler, obstinate without being firm, and bent on promoting only the interests of his family. In Germany he hardly made a pretence of exercising supreme authority, and many private wars were waged between the cities and the princes. In these the princes won considerable advantages, but they did not have everything their own way. About this time their power was seriously limited by the formation of diets (assemblies, or legislatures) in nearly all the principalities. Arms and money could be had only with the consent of these diets. During this reign the means and manner of warfare were much changed. The discovery of gunpowder made small bodies of men, properly armed, more than a match for great forces equipped in the old style. Hence arose the custom of hiring troops. A prince thus could not be sure the advantage would be his, even if his force was the more numerous. The princes became sick of war. In 1488, a great Swabian confederation, consisting of princes, nobles, and towns, was created for the establishment of peace; and its effects were excellent.

Maximilian I. (1493-1519) mounted the throne with unusual advantages. He was not only lord of the great Austrian lands, but, as husband of the Princess Mary, daughter of Charles the Bold, administered the Low Countries and the free county of Burgundy. He is often called the last of the knights. He was a knight especially in his political opinions. He never could learn that the old order of society was passing away and a new order arising. The best part of his life was spent in empty schemes for the revival of the old, and he could with difficulty be brought to any reform.

PERIOD OF THE REFORMATION.

The reign of Maximilian must be regarded as in many respects the end of the Middle Ages. The feudal relation between the king and the princes, and the princes and their vassals, had lost all force. The princes were sovereigns, and, by the formation of local diets in their territories, an approach to modern ideas of government was made. War was, it is true, not done away with, but men had at least begun to see that unnecessary bloodshed is an evil, and that

the true outlet for the mass of human energies is peaceful industry. The growth of the cities in social and political importance scattered more widely the products of labor, and the nation could now be moved much more easily than ever before by common ideas and impulses. The discovery of America, the invention of printing, the revival of learning, and many other causes, had effected a complete change in the point of view from which the world was regarded. The strongest of all the connections of the Middle Ages, that of the nation to the church, was about to be broken by the Reformation. This vast movement, which began in the later years of the reign of Maximilian, definitely severed the modern world from the world of the Middle Ages.

MARTIN LUTHER.

One of the professors at the University of Wittenberg was Martin Luther, the son of a wood-cutter of Thuringia, who had struggled into getting educated at the University of Erfurt, and had become a monk. He had been much troubled in mind by the sense of sin, until he came to rely wholly upon the merits of his Saviour, believing that no man can be justified by any outward action, but only by the grace of God received in his heart. A journey to Rome, in 1510, gave him an insight into the moral decay of the papacy. Many doctrines taught by the papacy had no connection with the Bible, and some were directly opposed to the teaching and practice of the early church. The morals of the clergy of all grades were bad. The convents were the abodes of ignorance and vicious indulgence. Now, it was the monstrous doctrine of indulgence which roused Luther. This doctrine had taken the wrong and blasphemous form of the sale for money of pardon for sin. An indulgence was proclaimed in the diocese in which Wittenberg was. This offer was nothing uncommon in itself; but John Tetzel, the monk who peddled these indulgences, drove his trade with shocking shamelessness. He boasted that he had brought more souls to heaven by his indulgences than all the apostles by their preaching. This shameless traffic and talk fired Luther's heart. On October 31st, 1517, he set up, after the custom of learned men of that day, on the door of the castle church at Wittenberg, ninety-five propositions, or theses, in which he challenged the whole system on which the sale of indulgences was founded. They asserted that God alone could forgive sin, and would do so only upon true repentance; that the Pope had no power, but that of every priest, to pronounce absolution, in God's name, to penitent believers; that, in its present form, the indulgence was unchristian, and contrary to the true Catholic faith, and must be proclaimed without any real knowledge of it by the Pope, "who would rather burn St. Peter's Cathedral to ashes than build it up with the skin and hair, the

flesh and blood of his flock." Luther thus humbly began his work with perfect confidence in the truth, but without any thought of the consequences that would follow. These theses were printed and spread all over Germany, so that there was a violent controversy, but Luther did not hesitate, though the fate of Huss might be his, to carry on the conflict.

CHARLES V. (1519–1556).

On the death of Maximilian the empire was coveted by three kings, Henry VIII. of England, Francis I. of France, and Charles, of Spain. The latter was chosen Emperor. He was only nineteen years old, grave, silent, thoughtful, very slow in making up his mind, but never changing his purpose when he had once decided. He was long in growing up, and had a sensitive, nervous timidity about him, which he kept under only by very strong self-control. He was a religious man, and anxious for the good of the church. Luther wrote to him on the state of the church, and at the same time Pope Leo X. denounced Luther's teaching, and wanted Luther to be sent to Rome to be dealt with as a heretic. Luther appealed to a general council of the church.

DIET OF WORMS (1521).

Charles called this assembly to meet at Worms, and gave Luther a safe-conduct thither. It was feared that this safe-conduct would not be heeded, but Luther declared that he would go "though there should be as many devils at Worms as there were tiles on the roofs," and he went. He was asked whether he would take back all he had said and written, or run the risk of the law against heretics. He looked around, and said: "Here I am; I cannot do differently. God help me. Amen." The clergy held many arguments with him, but he had gone on to dispute many other doctrines beside that of indulgence, and it was plain that there could be no agreement. Luther's friends, fearing for him, sent him away secretly by night, and he was taken to the Tower of Wartburg, where he translated the Bible into German. At this diet, Charles issued an edict denouncing Luther and his followers.

Charles V. had a war with Francis I. of France, and left his brother Ferdinand to rule in his place. Then great disturbances took place in Germany. The Nobles' War was followed by the Peasants' War, but neither of them was successful. Ferdinand held a diet at Speier, at which it was decided that each prince might have whatever form of doctrine he chose in his lands; whereupon some princes had all the churches given over to the Lutherans, and seized the abbeys and the land of bishoprics. In 1529, Ferdinand held another diet at Speier, where it was ordained that mass should be said in the churches. The

Lutherans made a protest against this edict, and they were, therefore, called Protestants.

THE PROTESTANTS AND THE AUGSBURG CONFESSION.

The name gradually spread to all who broke away from the Roman Catholic Church. In 1530, Charles came home and held a diet at Augsburg. The Protestants prepared for it by drawing up a great confession of their faith. This was chiefly the work of Philip Melancthon, a very good and learned man, a great friend of Luther, and it has been ever since the great rule of faith of the Lutherans. At Nuremberg, in 1532, Charles granted religious peace, because of difficulties with France and with the Turks.

COUNCIL OF TRENT (1545.)

It was not until after fifteen years waiting that Charles was able to have the Council of the Western Church really summoned. Pope Paul II. called the Council to meet at Trent in the Tyrol, but in the time that had been lost, the Protestants had grown much more hostile. Luther was dead, as was Henry VIII. of England, so that it was difficult to get together any but Spanish, and Italian, and Austrian clergy,—all strong Roman Catholics. The Lutherans saw there was no chance for a fair hearing, and so refused to come. Charles made war upon the Lutherans, and had every advantage. Soon his triumph became so great as to alarm even the Catholic princes. There was general discontent, war upon Charles made by Henry II. of France, and Moritz of Saxony, and Charles was overcome. In 1555 was concluded the religious peace of Augsburg, and in 1556 Charles handed over the government of Germany to his brother.

Ferdinand I. (1556–1564) was, like all German sovereigns after him, recognized as emperor without being crowned by the Pope. He was zealous for the church, but was able to accomplish little for it. The Empire was now in a sad state. Ferdinand would gladly have improved matters, but he was already an old man when he became Emperor, and he died in the year 1564.

Maximilian II. (1564–1576) was a kindly, warm-hearted man, beloved by all; and, though a Catholic, he allowed so much freedom to the Lutherans that he was sometimes accused of being one himself.

Rudolph II. (1576–1612) was the weakest and least sane of all the sons of Maximilian. In his youth he was bright and cheerful, and he read and studied much. He was very fond of chemistry and of astronomy, or rather of alchemy, an attempt to find a stone with which to make gold, and of astrology, which was supposed to foretell a man's fate by the stars. These two vain

studies turned Rudolph's head. He neglected everything for them, and things fell into disorder and began to work towards a civil war. Finally there was such confusion that, by a revolt, he was forced to give up the government to his brother Matthias.

Matthias (1612–1619) was hardly more fit for the duties he assumed. He put forth his whole strength against Protestantism, but he could not in the least discourage it, and in his time it prevailed over by far the larger part of the Austrian territory. By this time, however, there were signs of great Catholic reaction, which was to work fearful havoc in Germany. It was due mainly to the Jesuits. These devoted missionaries of the church gave their attention chiefly to the young, and during the reign of Rudolph they won completely over two princes, Maximilian, duke of Bavaria, and Ferdinand, duke of Styria, who became Emperor.

Ferdinand II. (1619–1637) was dominated by a fixed resolve to secure the triumph of the Catholic church throughout the Empire, a resolve which cost Germany

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

He began with Bohemia. He got troops from Spain and from Duke Maximilian, of Bavaria, who put at his disposal the army of the League, commanded by Tilly. The League was an association of Catholic princes, and the Union an association of Protestant princes. The Union wanted Friedrich V., of the Palatinate on the Rhine, to be Emperor. But Ferdinand and Tilly routed him and the Union in 1620. Bohemia was put under such a sort of government that, in becoming Catholic, it lost more than two-thirds of its population; sank from high prosperity to poverty, and ceased to be a seat of art and learning. The Palatinate was treated in the same way. The second stage of the Thirty Years' War began by the formation of the Protestant League, which included England, Holland, and Denmark. The burden of the struggle fell on Denmark. Ferdinand now wished to be independent of the League, and eagerly took up with Wallenstein's offer to raise an army for him. Wallenstein was a Bohemian noble, who by marriage and loyal service to the Emperor, had won wealth and power. With his help Denmark was forced, in 1629, to make peace.

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

Drunk with success, Ferdinand now demanded that the Protestants should give up all lands of the church which had come into their possession; and, being jealous of Wallenstein, he recalled him. It was a poor time to do either of these things; for, in 1630, Gustavus Adolphus, the great king of Sweden, came at the head of a strong army, to help the Protestant cause. Within a year, so

shrewd and wary was he, he had made allies of Pomerania and Saxony. He defeated, at Breitenfeld, Tilly and the whole force of the League. He might now have marched on and taken Vienna, but he did not know how broken the Emperor's strength was. He defeated Tilly again and took Munich. Emperor Ferdinand now persuaded Wallenstein to form a second army of which Ferdinand gave him absolute command. In 1632 Gustavus Adolphus defeated him at the famous battle of Lutzen. But this defeat was after all a victory for Wallenstein, for the Swedish hero was himself slain. Wallenstein now aimed at becoming a great sovereign, and perhaps hoped to be Emperor. He was so much feared that in 1634 he was got rid of by murder. For fourteen years longer the war was continued, though its original objects were almost forgotten. Cardinal Richelieu was the enemy of Protestants in France, but he hoped to weaken Austria by aiding them in Germany, and so, after the death of Gustavus Adolphus, he was one of the mainsprings of the war. At last, in 1648, the war was ended by the

PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.

The Thirty Years' War settled once for all that men should not be persecuted for their religious faith. This was the soul gain made by the Protestants in this war.

Loss of Territory. The country lost much. The bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun were formally yielded to France; and she received as much of Alsace as belonged to Austria. (This is why the French claim Alsace and Lorraine.) Sweden obtained Western Pomerania, with Stettin, and the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden. This gave Sweden the control both of the Baltic and of the North Sea. The independence of Switzerland and the United Provinces was recognized.

Political Constitution. The whole tendency of the Reformation was to loosen the bonds which united the various elements of the empire to each other, and to their head. The war helped this loosening, and the peace of Westphalia made the States almost completely independent. So shadowy an empire might well have come to an end entirely. But some slight bond of union was necessary for defence against common dangers.

National Life. The effect of the Thirty Years' War on the national life was very bad. The soldiers were chiefly men trained to fight, as a trade, from their youth up; coming from every nation, hiring themselves out for a certain time, and serving only for pay and plunder, with no real feeling for man, woman or child. Before the war the population was about twenty millions; after it the number was probably five or seven millions, and cannot have been more than ten. Whole towns and villages were laid in ashes, and vast districts turned

into deserts. Churches and schools were closed by hundreds, and the misery was so great that cannibalism is said to have been not uncommon. The spirit of the people was quite broken.

The Princes now began to be separated by a wide gulf from the people. They ground down the people instead of helping them in their distress. The nobles were, as a class, coarse and selfish, and were restrained neither by the people nor by the church.

The Cities. In the free imperial cities there was little of the generous rivalry among the different classes which had once raised them to a high level of prosperity.

MODERN TIMES.

By the treaty of Westphalia the great outlines of Europe were settled. Austria, Hungary, Tyrol, and Bohemia, being the hereditary lands of the Emperor, were Catholic, as also Bavaria. Brandenburg, Saxony, Brunswick, and most of the northern States and free cities were Protestant. Though the Empire still existed, all the princes were much more independent of it.

Ferdinand III. (1637-1657,) succeeded to the throne upon the death of Ferdinand II., in 1637. He was succeeded by

Leopold I. (1657-1705), who was a man of narrow mind and feeble will; yet Germany almost never felt so keenly the need of a strong emperor. For more than a century France had tried to strengthen herself by the internal quarrels of Germany. This was now easy, and the great French king, Louis XIV., was a very crafty and unprincipled man. Germany, as a whole, could not be induced to resist him. In various ways he got hold of many German towns and districts, and finally, in 1681, of Strassburg. This made the Germans indignant, but they did nothing. The Emperor had trouble with the Turks. Vienna was besieged in 1683 by the Turks, and saved only by Sobieski, king of Poland. In 1689 Louis XIV. sent armies into South Germany which were guilty of shameful outrages, and a number of princes came forward to aid the Emperor. Finally, France had to give up many places, but kept Strassburg.

WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.

In 1702 the States of the Empire declared war upon Louis XIV., and Leopold I. was pretty well supported by the princes. This war was made because Louis XIV. wanted the throne of Spain for his son. Leopold died during this war, but it was vigorously carried on by his son, Joseph I., 1705-1711.

Karl VI., (1711-1740), also went on with it; and such were the blows inflicted on France by the victories at Blenheim and elsewhere, that she seemed

utterly defeated. But the conclusion of the treaty of Utrecht by England in 1713 obliged Karl VI. to resign his claim to the Spanish throne. He cared little for Germany apart from Austria, and later he gave up Lorraine so that this beautiful German province was in time secured to France. Karl VI. died in 1740, the last male heir of the House of Hapsburg, having arranged that all his lands and titles should pass to his nearest female relative.

GROWTH OF PRUSSIA.

Germany was now about to be roused. But her awakening was due, not to the action of the Empire which was more and more seen to be practically dead, but to the rivalry of two great German States, Austria and Prussia. The latter had long been laying the foundations of her power. Brandenburg, the centre of the Prussian kingdom came, as we have seen, in the 15th century, into the hands of Friedrich, count of Hohenzollern, and became one of the most flourishing of the North-German principalities. At the time of the Reformation, Albrecht, a member of the Hohenzollern family, happened to be grand master of the Teutonic Order. He became a Protestant, dissolved the Order, and received from the King of Poland the duchy of Prussia. In 1611 this duchy was inherited by the Elector of Brandenburg, and in 1657 it was, by treaty, declared independent of Poland. Friedrich Wilhelm, the great elector of Brandenburg, added largely to his territories, and was looked upon as a model ruler. His son Friedrich was, in 1701, with the Emperor's consent, crowned king of Prussia. His extravagance exhausted the State.

FRIEDRICH WILHELM I., (1713-1740.)

This king was a man of an entirely different nature from his father. He disliked show and ceremony. He hated everything French, and aimed at being a German. Some people may call him miserly, fierce, course and brutal. Perhaps he was a tyrant. But after all, it must be acknowledged that without his hard practical sense in matters of government, his rigid, despotic organization of industry, finance and the army, Frederick the Great would never have had the means to maintain himself in that struggle which made Prussia a great power. The aim of his life was to increase the wealth, the order, and the strength of Prussia. He favored education, and one of his first measures was to establish 400 schools among the people, by the money he saved from the expenses of the royal household. He allowed the queen to have only one waiting-woman. He tried to protect the industries of Prussia, and encourage agriculture. When 17,000 Reformers were driven out of Upper Austria by the Archbishop of Salzburg, he not only furnished them with land, but sup-

ported them until they were settled in their new homes. He did everything for his army. He had a mania for giant soldiers; and, miserly as he was, he went to any expense to procure recruits, seven feet high, for his body-guard. For 43 such tall soldiers he paid $43,000—one, who was unusually large, costing $9,000. His regular evening recreation was his "Tobacco College." Some of his ministers and generals, foreign ambassadors, and even ordinary citizens, were invited to smoke tobacco and drink beer with him in a plain room where the seats were all of wood. Each was obliged to smoke. The most important affairs of State were discussed at these meetings, which were, altogether, informal. But Friedrich Wilhelm was not always so amiable. He always carried a heavy cane, which he would apply without mercy to the shoulders of any who seemed to be idle, no matter what their rank or station. His manner of government was rude, but it was good; and, when he died, in 1740, he left behind him a State containing 64,000 square miles, and a population of 2,500,000. He left an army ready for the field, 83,000 strong, and a treasure of 9,000,000 thalers, besides silver bullion. He had increased the revenue of the State from two and a half to seven and a half millions of thalers a year. Berlin had a population of nearly 100,000.

The outward show and trappings of the Empire remained still with Austria; but the rude strength which cuts loose from the past and busies itself with the practical work of its day and generation was rapidly creating a future for Prussia. Therefore, we will, from this point on, follow the fortunes of Prussia.

FREDERICK THE GREAT (1740–1786.)

Friedrich Wilhelm I. was succeeded by his son Frederick I., whom we know as Frederick the Great. Karl VI. was succeeded by his daughter, the Empress Maria Theresa. Frederick was harshly treated by his father, but showed now that he knew how to rule, for he did even better than his father. He compelled, by war, Maria Theresa to grant Silesia to him, but she did not give up the hope of winning it back. So there came the Seven Years' War (1756–63), in which Austria, France, Russia, Saxony and Sweden were allied to crush Prussia and divide the spoils among themselves. Frederick was helped a little by England. In 1762 his prospects were dark. With four millions of people he had, for six years, fought powers which embraced eighty millions; half his territory was exhausted and the other half lost to him. But now the Czar Peter III., came to the throne of Russia, and Russia became his ally. Austria was discouraged and finally had to give up Silesia forever. The result of this war was to make Prussia one of the "Five Great Powers," the others

being England, France, Austria and Russia. Frederick did everything now to raise the kingdom from its weakness. He doubled his army finally and practiced all economy in State expenses. In 1772 the necessities of Frederick's position compelled him to join Russia and Austria in the unrighteous partition of Poland, by which he gained West Prussia with about 700,000 inhabitants. This was the region lost to Germany in 1466; its population was still mostly German, and scarcely felt the annexation as a wrong, but this does not make the act any better. Frederick's last years were peaceful. He lived to see the independence of the United States, and sent a sword of honor to Washington. When he died in 1786, at the age of seventy-four, he left a kingdom of 6,000,000 inhabitants, an army of 200,000 men, and 70,000,000 thalers in the treasury. But what was of far more consequence to Germany, he left behind him an example of patriotism, of order, of economy, and of personal duty, which was already followed by other German princes, and an example of resistance to foreign interference which restored the pride and revived the hopes of the German people. He is known to them as "Old Fritz," and in the stories of the people, his name is still next to Luther's.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

The French Revolution was hailed by many in Germany as the opening of a new era. Among the princes it excited horror and alarm, and in 1792 the Emperor Leopold II., and Friedrich Wilhelm II., the unworthy successor of Frederick the Great, agreed to support by arms the cause of the French king against the French people. The conflict cost Europe millions of lives. In 1795 Prussia withdrew from the struggle, ceding to France her possessions on the left bank of the Rhine. In 1797 Austria was forced to make peace. The triumph of France was due to Napoleon Bonaparte. In 1799 and 1805 Austria, together with England and Russia tried to overcome France, but in vain. The degradation of Germany was completed in 1806, by the promotion of the Confederation of the Rhine, which was composed of the chief central and southern German States. Napoleon was the protector of this body, and it existed only as a threat to Prussia and Austria.

Friedrich Wilhelm III. (1797–1840) of Prussia, made war on Napoleon and, aided by Russia, held out for some time, but was defeated. In 1807, by the treaty of Tilsit, he was deprived of the best part of his kingdom and of more than half his subjects. Germany was now in the grip of France. But the completion of her humiliation was her deliverance. Prussia took the lead again and gathered her forces, waiting for the proper moment to strike. The retreat of the French from Moscow in 1812 was the occasion. In 1813 Prussia

formed an alliance with Russia and Austria, and Napoleon was defeated in the battle of Leipzig. In the battle of Waterloo (1815) he was once for all beaten and his power was gone. Prussia did not get back all the lands that had ever been taken from her by France, but she got a part of Saxony, the Rhineland, Westphalia, and Swedish Pomerania.

THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION (1815–1865.)

All the German States felt now that some form of union was necessary. The establishment of some better and stronger form of the old Empire would have been welcomed. But the jealousies of Austria and Prussia prevented this. Instead of an Empire there was formed the German *Bund*, or confederation. This included the two great monarchies of Austria and Prussia, the kingdoms of Bavaria, Saxony, Wurtemberg and Hanover; and also one electorate, seven grand-duchies, nine duchies, eleven principalities, and four free cities, making a total of thirty-nine States. The Act of Union assured to these States equal rights and independence. One article required each State to introduce a representative form of government. The carrying of these provisions into effect was left to the rulers of the State. The history of the next period is little more than a list of the tricks by which the German sovereigns broke their agreements. There was no political progress until 1830. Even in that year the Prussian and Austrian governments went on in the old way, while Hanover, Brunswick, Saxony and Hesse-Cassel received constitutions, and everywhere freedom of the press was granted and more liberal legislation promised.

THE TARIFF UNION (ZOLL-VEREIN.)

Perhaps the most important act of the Prussian government was its effort to bring into unity the trade and commerce of all Germany. As industry, commerce and travel increased, the existence of so many boundaries, with their custom-houses, taxes and other hindrances became an unendurable burden. Under the guidance of Prussia and Bavaria, all Germany excepting Austria, was united in the Zoll-Verein or customs-union. For commercial purposes Germany was now a unit, and the products of the nation soon began to compete with those of other nations. The merchant navy of Germany rose again. Lines of railroads were soon built throughout the country. The cities became prosperous and were therein rivaled by the agricultural districts. The increased resources of the peasants brought with them more knowledge. The fine arts reached a splendid development. Science made wonderful strides. These advantages all flowed from the growing feeling that the German people was one great nation.

FRIEDRICH WILHELM IV. (1840–1861.)

This monarch began his reign well. His first act showed a desire for progress. But it soon became evident that his favorite idea of "the Christian State" did not include any real exercise of political power by the nation. He wanted to rule absolutely. Hence there came offensive interference with the private life of individuals. He delayed the adoption of a constitution. In 1847 accordingly there was great agitation, and the king ordered the formation of a Legislative Assembly. But he closed it after a short session.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848.

The sudden breaking out of the revolution of February, 1848, in Paris, and the proclamation of the Republic, acted in Germany like a spark dropped upon powder. There was instantly an outcry for freedom of speech and of the press, the right of suffrage and national representation. Within a few days there was a liberal ministry in every one of the small States. Scenes of great violence occurred in the streets of Berlin. Friedrich Wilhelm promised to grant the changes in the government that were wanted. The German States all wanted to be one, and act together again. They sent representatives to meet at Frankfort to arrange a plan. But the plan they adopted was too clumsy to work, and there was nothing but confusion. Austria and Prussia were jealous of one another. Finally the assembly at Frankfort begged Friedrich Wilhelm of Prussia, to be Emperor, or Kaiser, of the Germans. But he thought their plan did not give him power enough, and that he would be only a name and a shadow, and so he declined. This was a great disappointment to German patriots. There were disturbances in Bavaria, Saxony, and Baden, but Prussia helped put them down, and North Germany was at peace again by July, 1849. During this time there were violent outbreaks at Vienna. Italy, Hungary and Bohemia rebelled against Austria, but in vain.

Then came a dismal period of reaction in all Germany. The liberal features which had been adopted in the various governments were suppressed. Religious liberty was attacked. It was a period of petty despotism, when each State was practically governed in the interests of a class of nobles. The people suffered much, and many emigrated. But a change came, when, in 1861, the king died, and was succeeded by his brother, the present King of Prussia, and Emperor of Germany,

WILHELM I.

His government has been a liberal one, and Germany's political prospects have been bright during all his reign. The successes of the years since 1861

have been due to the great Prime Minister, Otto von Bismarck. This exceedingly able man had no feeling against war, but said that "blood and iron" was the only cure for all the difficulties of Germany. His first war was about the German duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, which had belonged to the Kings of Denmark, just as Hanover did to the Kings of England. The male line of Denmark died out, and Prussia said that these duchies ought now to become German. So there was war. Prussia was much too strong for Denmark, and the King of Denmark was obliged to give up the three duchies of Schleswig, Holstein and Lauenburg. This was in 1864. Then came a dispute between Prussia and Austria, and Wilhelm made an alliance with Victor Emanuel, and promised to go on fighting in Germany until Austria should be forced to give up Venice to Italy.

Next Bismarck proposed that Prussia should have the North German States and Austria the South, and that there should be an Assembly elected by the people to settle the affairs of the whole German "Fatherland." This came to nothing, and now the jealousy of these two great Powers ended in a great fight as to which should be the real head of Germany. Saxony, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, and Nassau, though Northern States, all took the sides of Austria, and sent their troops to join the Austrian army in Bohemia.

Count von Moltke was at the head of the Prussian army. Hanover and Saxony were first overcome, and then the Prussians entered Bohemia. They were the best armed and best trained soldiers in Germany. At the great battle of Kœniggrætz, on July 2nd, 1866, the Austrians were beaten. Then followed victory after victory until peace was made at Prague in August. By this peace, Austria gave up her claims to be a part of Germany. Moreover, Prussia kept as her own Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and Frankfurt. Bavaria, Saxony, Wurtemberg, and Baden still remained as States, with their own princes over them, but under obligation to fight under Prussia's direction in time of war. All the German States north of the river Main were compelled to form a North-German Confederation under the leadership of Prussia.

FRANCO-GERMAN WAR (1870-1871).

The growth of Prussia, which had been a kingdom only since the seventeenth century, made the French nation jealous and Europe uneasy. The war with Napoleon and his signal defeat at Sedan are well known. All Germany was filled with enthusiasm and delight by the unequaled successes of the German arms. All difficulties in the way of a complete union of the German people seemed to vanish. In the autumn of 1870 negotiations were opened between

the South-German States and the North-German Confederation, and in November the latter became the German Confederation. Bavaria insisted upon some highly important reservations, such as the maintenance of her own diplomacy; of her postal, telegraph and railway systems; of her military administration; and of certain valuable taxes. Baden, Hesse-Darmstadt and Wurtemberg also maintained special rights. Thus Germany became a united State. The King of Bavaria then proposed that the King of Prussia, the head of the Confederation, should be declared Emperor, or Kaiser. This suggestion was approved, and, on the 18th of January, 1871, in the Hall of Mirrors in the Palace of Versailles, he was proclaimed Emperor, in the midst of a brilliant assembly of German princes and officers.

March 21st, 1871, the first diet, or parliament of the Empire, met in Berlin, and the constitution was settled.

FOREIGN POLICY.

Since the war with France, Germany has been at peace; but she maintains her vast army, since she believes that France is thirsting for revenge. The principal object of Bismarck's foreign policy has been to keep France from any alliance with any other power. He has cultivated the friendship of Austria and of Russia, while being friendly to England. In 1872 the Czar and the Austrian Emperor visited Berlin, and, during their stay, the three Emperors concluded an alliance, the exact limits and conditions of which are not known. Soon afterwards Victor Emanuel, the Italian King, also visited the German capital, and Emperor Wilhelm went to Italy, being received with marks of hearty friendship. It is thought that, in 1875, Bismarck tried to enter into close relations with England. But, in his public acts, both before and since the Turko-Russian War, he has mainly supported Russia. He also encouraged Austria to extend her influence in the East by occupying Bosnia.

CHURCH AND STATE.

In her home politics the attention of Germany was for some years taken up with a great struggle between the State and the church in Prussia. After the Pope had been proclaimed infallible, Bismarck began to think that the Empire was in danger from ultramontane intrigues. *Ultramontane* is the word used to designate those who hold extreme views of the Pope's rights and authority. In 1872 the Jesuits were expelled from the German Empire. Then came, in 1873, the famous May Laws. By these laws it was required that candidates for the priesthood should have a certain amount of secular training at the Universities,

and that every appointment of a priest should be approved by the State authorities. These laws were declared invalid by the Pope. The Roman Catholic bishops did not heed them, and were punished—being imprisoned, deposed and banished. Religious orders were dissolved. The management of church property was taken from the clergy and put in the hands of laymen. These stern measures have turned away from Bismarck the sympathies of the vast majority of German Catholics. There has been much that is right in principle in this *Kulturkampf*, as this struggle is called, but it has been carried out in a wrong way. There has been much violence, petty persecution, and injustice. Just now it looks as if Bismarck and the Pope were ready to make some mutual concessions. If this is done the Roman Catholic church in Germany will be relieved of much constraint, and the German goverment rid of some troublesome questions.

SOCIALISM.

Another remarkable thing has been the rapid growth of socialism throughout the German Empire. Ferdinand Lassalle made socialism a power. He began by addressing large audiences of workingmen in Berlin and Leipzig, and in less than two years he had formed a party. His theory was that with the relations of society as they now are, workingmen, as a class, can never improve their position; that their sole chance is to form associations for production, which shall enable them to secure the whole benefit of their labor; and that it is the duty of the State to provide such associations with capital, to see that justice is done to their members, and to regulate the markets of the world. But, though Lassalle's theory was so attractive, he was a man of fortune, who lived a luxurious and vicious life. He was not consistent with his system.

Karl Marx was another great socialist leader, whose theory involves the abolition of private property, and that all production shall be carried on by the State alone. His followers would gladly use violent means to bring about this end. Trade has been so depressed in Germany, wages so low, employment so limited, that socialism has made many converts. This has been helped, by the fact, that already the government is in Germany the greatest of all powers, doing for the people many things, which, in the United States, the people must do for themselves. So it seems to the poor man that he has a right to ask the Government to make him suddenly rich. Socialism is too often a dreamy theory that will not bear the touch of practical life. Yet, in 1878, the socialists polled more than half a million of votes. In this year two attempts were made upon Emperor William's life, by men who boasted of their socialist opinions and aims. Bismarck then secured the passage of a law giving the police of the

land, for two years and a half, enormous special powers. These powers were used at once rigorously, and socialism has seemed to vanish. But it is not yet dead. The peasantry are to a man opposed to socialism; they cling to their real property. This resistance socialism can never overcome.

NATIONAL UNITY.

The socialists and the ultramontanes have joined in opposition to measures for promoting National unity. They have been aided by the members from those districts that once formed part of Poland, by the members for Alsace and Lorraine, and by the so-called particularists, those who still favor the ancient rights of the individual States. In spite of this combined opposition, much progress has been made in changing a loose association of countries into a true Nation. Between 1872 and 1875 an imperial coinage, an imperial paper money and an imperial banking system were established. In 1877 a supreme court for the whole Empire was established. It was proposed that this court should sit in Berlin, but a large majority decided for Leipzig. This is to be taken as a hint, that while Germany wishes to be united, she will not voluntarily see herself made into a Prussia on a large scale. In spite of their military strength, their victories and the establishment of the Empire, the Germans are not, politically, a contented people. The reason is that they have outgrown their institutions. The more intelligent classes desire to add to National unity the triumph of free representative government.

GERMANY OF TO-DAY.

Vegetation. There are in the German Empire 192,000 square miles of land that can be cultivated. This is about 92 per cent. of the whole area. Of arable land there are 102,000 square miles, or 49 per cent of the total; of meadows and pasture grounds 36,000 square miles, or 17 per cent; and of woodland 53,000 square miles or 25 per cent. The extent of uncultivatable ground is trifling.

Forests. The woodlands form one-fourth of the entire soil, the proportion of forest being far greater than in any other State in the South or West of Europe. The percentage for France is only 17, for Italy 12, for Great Britain about 3. The forests belonging to the State occupy alone 17,600 square miles. The greatest attention is paid to forest culture, while we in America shamelessly and criminally waste our supplies of wood. Southern Germany is on the whole better wooded than Northern. A narrow strip along the Baltic is covered with oaks and beeches; further inland come cone-bearing trees, especially the Scotch

firs; birches are also abundant. The mountain forests consist chiefly of firs, pines and larches, but contain also silver firs, beeches, and oaks. Chestnuts appear in the Rhine valley and in Swabia. The whole northwest of Germany is destitute of wood, but, to compensate for this, there are ample supplies of turf.

Agriculture. The same kinds of cereal crops are cultivated in all parts of the Empire, but in the south and west, wheat is predominant, and in the north and east, rye, oats, and barley. To these are added, in some districts, spelt, buckwheat, millet, rice-wheat and maize. In general the soil is remarkably well cultivated. The yield, in a fair average season, is estimated to be 2,400,000,000 bushels of rye; 2,400,000,000 of oats; 1,360,000,000 of wheat and spelt, and 800,000,000 of barley. The potato is largely cultivated, not merely for food, but for distillation into spirits. The common beet is largely grown in some districts for the production of sugar. Flax and hemp are cultivated for manufacture into linen and canvas, and also for the production of oil. The cultivation of hops is in a very thriving condition in the southern parts of Germany. The soil occupied by hops was estimated, in 1873, at 93,680 acres, —a larger area than in any other country of the globe. The total production was about 500,000,000 pounds, of which somewhat more than four-fifths came from Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden and Alsace-Lorraine. Hops are thus one of the standard articles of exportation from Germany, as well as beer. There are in Germany about 30,000 breweries, producing annually about 900,000,000 gallons of beer. Tobacco forms the most productive and most profitable object of culture in many districts. The total area under this crop was, in 1876, about 54,000 acres; the production was about 800,000,000 pounds. The culture of the vine is almost confined to Southern and Western Germany, and especially to the Rhine district. The total amount of wine produced in Germany may be estimated at a thousand million gallons annually.

Live Stock. The cultivation of grazing lands in Germany has been greatly improved in recent times, and is in a highly prosperous condition. The provinces of Pomerania and Hanover are remarkable in this respect. The breeding of domestic animals is most extensive in Bavaria and in the maritime provinces. There we find 1,000 to 1,500 head of the larger kinds (horses, cattle, sheep, goats and swine) for every 1,000 inhabitants. In the number of horses, Germany ranks with Great Britain, about 80 for every 1,000 inhabitants; and although the production cannot meet the home demand, the imports being 30,000 in excess of the exports annually, the breeding of horses has attained great perfection. The main center is in East and West Prussia; there are more

than half a million horses—about 30 per English square mile. Cattle abound in most South-German States, especially Bavaria and Wurtemberg, where there are 180 to 200 head for every square mile; in the Northern Districts, the numbers are small. The aggregate number of sheep in Germany is only exceeded by that in Great Britain and Russia. The principal sheep districts are Pomerania and Mecklenburg,—300 per square mile. The largest stock of swine is in Central Germany, in Saxony, in Westphalia; along the Rhine, etc. The excess of swine imported over the exports, for the whole of Germany, ranges from 600,000 to 800,000 annually. Agriculture supports three-tenths of the population.

Mines and Minerals. Germany abounds in useful minerals, and in consequence takes a high place among industrial nations. In 1876 about 50,000,000 tons of coal were produced, valued at about 70,000,000 dollars. The total production of minerals was about 55,000,000 tons, valued at about 90,000,000 dollars. There are six large coal fields occupying an area of about 3,600 square miles. The iron manufacture has progressed so far that Germany is in many branches independent of England. The greatest advance has been in the production of steel. Many European States have been supplied by Krupp with cast-steel guns. Since 1877, steel rails have been exported. Hardware and cutlery are largely exported. Germany stands second to Great Britain in the manufacture of machines and engines. In iron ship-building Germany is independent; dock-yards have been established for the construction of large iron-clads. Germany produces more silver and gold than any other European State, and the quantity is annually increasing. In 1876 the value of the silver was about 5,000,000 dollars; of the gold about 90,000 dollars. The quantity of lead produced allows Germany to export from 300,000 to 400,000 cwts. annually. The amount was 1,512,000 cwts. in 1876, worth about $7,500,000. Germany yields more copper than any other European State, but has to import about 200,000 cwts. annually to meet the home demand. About 90 per cent. of the zinc produced in Europe is yielded by Belgium and Germany. In 1876, Germany yielded 1,664,500 cwts., value about 8,500,000 dollars. Germany possesses abundant salt deposits. There is a large exportation to Russia, Austria and Scandinavia. The yield, in 1877, was 8,318,000 cwts. of boiled salt, 3,221,000 cwts. rock salt, and 256,000 cwts. of other kinds. A considerable amount of chloride of potash is turned out by 15 works in Anhalt, where alone potash ores are found. The production, in 1876, was 846,000 cwts , value about 1,200,000 dollars.

POPULATION.

In 1875, Germany had 45,727,360 inhabitants. In Prussia and Saxony the population has increased 60 to 70 per cent. in 40 to 44 years; in the other States only 18 to 23 per cent. This is explained by the fact that there has been an extensive immigration into Prussia since 1815; moreover the surplus of births over deaths has at all times been greater in the north. To the population of the whole of Germany there is an annual addition by births of upwards of half a million. The annual death-rate is 29.5, being higher than that of other countries, excepting Russia, Finland, Austria-Hungary, Italy and Servia.

Emigration. The increase of population would have been still greater, had there been no emigration. The number of emigrants from Germany since 1820 is about 4,000,000, but this includes many Austrians. About 90 per cent. of German emigrants come to the United States.

Density. In 1875, the mean density of population was, 205 per square mile. The density ranges from 50 to 700 per square mile, towns not included.

Houses. The number of houses may be estimated at about 5,500,000, so that the average number of inhabitants to a house is from seven to eight. All the larger cities consist of houses in which a number of families live together. Thus, in Berlin, there are 57 persons to a house.

INDUSTRIES.

Cotton Manufacture. Before 1871 the production of cotton fabrics in France exceeded that in Germany; but there being more than 2,000,000 spindles employed in Alsace, the balance is now against the former country. In 1873 there were about 5,000,000 spindles in Germany. The industry has not improved since 1873. The production of cotton yarns does not meet the home demand, and about 200,000 cwts. are imported annually.

Woolen and Worsted. Here Germany is far behind France. The home production of wools is not sufficient. The manufacture of woolen cloth is well developed. The cloth is well woven, durable and cheap.

Linen, Hemp and Jute. In this line Germany is behind Great Britain, France and Austria-Hungary. In 1874, 325,000 spindles were at work in Germany for flax, hemp and jute spinning, against 415,000 in Austria, 663,000 in France, and 1,670,000 in Great Britain. About 300,000 cwts. of linen yarn are imported into Germany annually, while Austria exports 100,000 cwts.

Silk. Raw silk can scarcely be ranked among the products of the Empire, but about 50,000 cwts., are imported yearly, there being some superior silk-weaving establishments.

ROADS, RAILWAYS AND CANALS.

Roads. The construction of good highways has been well attended to only since the Napoleonic wars. The existence of many small States was favorable to road-making. The Thuringer Forest has been made almost into a park, by its splendid roads. The total length of the public roads is to be estimated at about 72,000 miles.

Railways. The first railway was built from Nuremberg to Furth, in 1835, but the development of the system was slow. The little States were too selfish and quarreled too much. Hanover was especially self-seeking. Thus the Eastern and Western portions of Prussia were divided, and until 1866 there was no railway from Bremen into the interior of Germany. Since 1866 there has been an immense growth however. Germany now owns a greater length of railways than any other State in Europe. At the end of 1877, Germany had 18,830 miles, Great Britain and Ireland 17,092, France 14,785. By far the larger portion of the railway system of Germany belongs to the government.

Canals. Germany cannot be said to be rich in canals. The greatest number of canals is found around Berlin. The 70 canals of Germany have a total length of only 1,250 miles.

POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

With the exception of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, which have administrations of their own, there is in the German Empire but one post system. Since 1874 the postal and telegraphic departments have been combined. Germany, including Bavaria and Wurtemberg, constitutes with Austria-Hungary a special postal union, besides forming part of the international postal union. In 1877 their were 8,500 post offices, or one for every 23 square miles. The average number of letters to each person was 14, whereas it is 35 in England.

Telegraphs. By combining the postal and telegraphic departments Germany has saved much. Great sums are spent still on the extension of the telegraph system. Since 1876 important places have been connected with Berlin by underground wires. The telegraph is not so much used by the people in Germany as in many other countries.

SHIPPING.

The German merchant navy has always had excellent officers and men. The seamen of Frisia are among the best in the world, and Bremen and Hamburg have long been famous for their shipping. Since 1866 all German ships have carried a common flag—black, white, red. Germany ranks fourth in the list of maritime nations. Great Britain, the United States, and Norway have larger fleets. In 1877, there were 4,469 sailing vessels of 935,000 tons, and 336 steamers of 183,000 tons. Only 44 per cent. of the ships that trade with German ports sail under the German flag; 32 per cent. are British ships.

GOVERNMENT.

The German Empire is a union of 25 sovereign States, viz., 4 kingdoms, 6 grand-duchies. 5 duchies, 7 principalities, 3 free-towns. Alsace-Lorraine is a twenty-sixth member, but is administered by the central authority. The supreme director of the military and political affairs of the Empire is in the King of Prussia, with the title of German Emperor (Deutscher Kaiser). The imperial dignity is hereditary in the Hohenzollern family, and follows the law of primogeniture. The present Emperor has now a great-grandson who will one day be Emperor of Germany, if he lives. The Emperor is assisted in his office by a federal council of 59 members, who are appointed for each session by the individual States. The legislative powers of the Empire are vested in the Emperor, the federal council, and the reichstag, or parliament. There are 397 members of the latter. The Empire has supreme control in matters relating to military affairs and the navy, to the imperial finances, to German commerce, to posts and telegraphs, and also to railways as affecting the common defense of the country. It has also the lead in the regulation of the rights of German subjects generally, as well as in all that relates to banking, patents, copyrights, navigation, civil and criminal legislation, judicial procedure, sanitary police, and control of the press and associations. Both the federal council and the reichstag meet annually. All laws must receive the votes of an absolute majority of the federal council and of the reichstag, and must then be approved by the Emperor, and countersigned by the Chancellor of the Empire, when promulgated.

By the electoral law of 1869, every German of twenty one years of age is entitled to be an elector, and every one who has completed his twenty-fifth year, and has resided for a year in one of the Federal States, is eligible for election. The members of the reichstag are unsalaried, but during the session they have the right of traveling free by rail.

FINANCE.

The chief annual expenses of the German Empire are those of the central administration, the army and navy, posts and telegraphs, the supreme court, the diplomatic service, and some smaller items. For meeting these, it has all customs receipts and the net amount of certain internal revenue taxes, viz: those on beet-root sugar, salt, tobacco, malt, and spirits. Other receipts are from posts and telegraphs, from the railroads in Alsace-Lorraine, etc. The total receipts do not equal the expenses, and the separate States have to make contributions to the Empire according to their population. These contributions are about $20,000,000 annually. They are increasing, and press heavily upon the minor States. Of the immense sum received from France, as an indemnity, the Empire has invested various sums for fixed purposes. It has also put aside $30,000,000 as a reserve war fund, which is not laid out at interest, but exists in coined gold and bullion at Spandau.

ARMY AND NAVY.

Every German is liable to service, and no substitution is allowed. Every German, capable of bearing arms, has to serve in the standing army for seven years—as a rule, from the end of his twentieth to the beginning of his twenty-eighth year. Three of these seven years he must spend in active service, and the remainder in the reserve. After quitting the reserve, he forms part of the landwehr for five years more. The strength of the army, on a peace footing, is about 400,000 men. The number of recruits levied annually is 145,000. Besides the army, there has existed, since 1875, the landsturm, to which all men, liable to service and capable of bearing arms, between the ages of seventeen and forty-two, belong, if they are neither in the line, the reserve, the landwehr, nor the marine. The landsturm is only called to arms in the event of a hostile invasion. On a war-footing the army is fixed at a little over 1,300,000 men, and over 300,000 horses. The greatest strength of the army in the war with France was 1,350,787 men and 263,753 horses. But it is calculated that Germany can put in arms, at any given time, two millions and a half of armed men without having recourse to the last reserves. The Empire possesses sixteen fortified places of the first class, serving as camps, and twenty-seven other fortresses.

Navy.—The German navy is of recent origin. In 1878, there were in all seventy vessels, of 91,500 tons and 110,000 horse-power and carrying 399 guns.

RELIGION.

Almost two-thirds of the population belong to the Evangelical Church, and rather more than one-third to the Church of Rome. The Jewish element, half a million (1¼ per cent.), is larger than in any other State of West, North, or South Europe. Alsace-Lorraine, Bavaria, and Baden have a predominant Catholic population. The Protestant element prevails, but with 23 to 33 per cent. of Catholics in Prussia, Wurtemberg, Hesse and Oldenburg. In Saxony and eighteen minor States the Catholics are only from .1 (one-tenth) to 33 per cent. of the population. The geographical limits of the confessions have not changed much since the Thirty Years' War. A religious map of South Germany looks like a historical map of the Seventeenth century.

Protestant Church.—The Protestants are divided by their confessions into Reformed and Lutheran. To unite these the "Church Union" has been introduced in several Protestant States. Christians are thus counted only as Evangelical and Catholic.

Jews.—It is in the towns that the Jewish element is chiefly to be found. They belong principally to the mercantile class, and are dealers in money. Though still in fact at least, if not also by law, excluded from many public offices, especially from commands in the army, they, nevertheless, are very powerful in Germany, the press being for the most part in their hands.

EDUCATION.

In point of intellectual culture Germany ranks high. Much is done by the Government to promote all grades of education. School instruction is obligatory upon the whole people. A few years ago the total number of primary schools was estimated at 60,000, and that of pupils at 6,500,000, or 150 pupils to every 1,000 inhabitants. The census in Prussia proves primary school instruction to be better among the Protestants than among the Catholics. In 1875 there were one hundred and seventy seminaries in Germany for training schoolmasters.

There are four different kinds of schools for the higher branches of education. The gymnasia supply preparatory training for the universities. Officials, judges, clergymen, teachers and physicians receive their early instruction at the gymnasia. In 1878 there were 360 gymnasia, or 1 for every 117,000 inhabitants and every 600 square miles. To these must be added the progymnasias, in which the highest classes of the gymnasia are wanting. Then

there is the system of *real schulen*, which prepare for those professions which do not require a university course, and for the study at the university of the modern languages, mathematics, and the natural sciences. Besides these there are many technical schools whose purpose is purely industrial. There are, moreover, schools of commerce, navigation and agriculture.

Univversities and Higher Technical Schools.—The large number of universities and the widely diffused higher education is due to the former sub-division into many separate States. There are twenty-one universities. In 1878 there were in these, 1,913 Professors and teachers, and 20,826 students.

Libraries.—A general diffusion of knowledge is favored by numerous public libraries. The most celebrated are those at Berlin (about 1,000,000 volumes) and Munich.

Book-trade.—This branch of industry is at once a cause and a result of the mental culture of Germany. Leipzig is the center of the trade. The number of booksellers in 1878 was over 5,000, of whom 1,546 were publishers. More books are published annually in Germany than in any other country.

Newspapers, are very numerous, but have a somewhat limited sale. In 1878 there were 600 important newspapers published daily, or two or three times a week. Berlin alone has about 50 newspapers. Only 20 daily papers have a circulation of more than 20,000.

Fine Arts. There are many academies which have for their object the promotion of a taste for painting, sculpture, architecture and music, and the improvement of the technique of art.

SWITZERLAND.

BY F. T. W.

FOR a thousand years, and when all else were Kingdoms or Empires, there has existed, in the mountainous districts in the heart of Europe, the little republic known as the Confederation of Switzerland. It has an area of some sixteen thousand square miles, or about equal to Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut combined. It is upon the highest land, overlooking all other States of Europe. Under the dominion of Rome, up to the fall of the empire, it has since been subject to the Ostrogoths, the Alemans, the Burgundians, and the Franks. Under the French directory, Switzerland was converted into a republic, "one and indivisible," which lasted four years. In 1802, a delegation was sent to Paris to inquire what should be the form of government given in the contemplated new constitution: The First Consul wisely replied, "Nature made you to be a federative State; no reasonable man attempts to conquer nature." This league lasted till the Congress of Vienna (1815), when her independence was again acknowledged and guaranteed. The republic in 1848 became a united confederacy. The love for the little canton, or state government, gave place to a broader love for Switzerland. The present constitution was adopted by a general vote of the people in 1874. It vests the supreme legislative and executive authority in a parliament of two chambers—a State Council, and a National Council. The first is composed of forty-four members, two each from the twenty-two cantons, corresponding to our Senate. The second consists of one hundred and thirty-five representatives, chosen in direct election, on a basis of one representative for every twenty thousand persons. Election every three years. Every citizen a voter at the age of twenty years. Any voter, not a clergyman, may be elected a representative. The united chambers are called the Federal Assembly, and as such represent the supreme government of the republic. It, alone, has the right to declare war, make peace, and conclude alliances and

treaties with other nations. The executive authority is deputed to a Federal Council, consisting of seven members, elected for three years by the Assembly. Every citizen entitled to a vote in the National Council is eligible to membership in this executive branch of government. The president and vice-president of the Federal Council are the first magistrates of the republic, and are elected by the Federal Assembly. The presidential term is one year, and both president and vice-president are ineligible at the succeeding election. Each canton has its local government, based upon the principle of the absolute sovereignty of the people.

The military spirit is fostered in Switzerland, and her military organization is regarded as the most perfect in Europe. She has, nevertheless, no standing army. Every Swiss is liable to serve in the defense of his country. The troops of the republic are divided into two classes. First, the Federal army, consisting of all men able to bear arms, from the age of twenty to thirty-two. Second, the militia, comprising all men from the thirty-third to the completed forty-fourth year. The total of the army and reserve militia is 202,397. They drill annually. Switzerland has no national debt.

The government is wise in matters of education. Parents are compelled by law to send their children to school. The schools have a high reputation throughout Europe. All religious creeds and societies, that do not endanger the civil government, are tolerated. The free exercise of worship is guaranteed, within the limits compatible with public order and proper behavior. Less than six per cent. of her citizens are foreigners. No people surpass the Swiss for industry and frugality. Cities are not thronged, as in other European states, the population dwelling chiefly in small towns, hamlets, and villages.

Here, then, is a republic, in the midst of warlike and aggressive monarchies, without a standing army, and without a national debt; peaceful, yet brave, virtuous and happy.

Beareth the mountain breeze a spell?
Aye, tyrants long hath known it well;
The home of Hofer—that of Tell,
The land of loch and glen,
Bear witness that, from cliff and crag,
Streams first and last the freeman's flag,
And mountains nurture men

THE MARSEILLAISE HYMN.

Moderato.

1. Ye sons of Freedom' wake to glo - ry, Hark, hark, what myriads bid you
2. Now, now the dang'rous storm is roll-ing, Which treach'rous Kings confederate
3. O LIB - ER-TY! can man re - sign thee? Once having felt thy generous

rise, Your children, wives and grandsires hoary; Be-hold their tears and hear their
raise, The dogs of war, let loose, are howling, And lo! our walls and cit - ies
flame, Can dungeons, bolts and bars confine thee! Or whips thy no-ble spir - it

cries, Be-hold their tears and hear their cries; Shall hateful ty -rants mis-chief
blaze, And lo! our wall and cit-ies blaze, And shall we base - ly view the
tame, Or whips thy no - ble spir-it - tame? Too long the world has wept be -

breeding With hireling hosts, a ruf-fian band, Af-fright and des - o - late the
ru - in; While lawless force with guilty stride, Spread des-o - la - tion far and
wailing, That falsehood's dagger tyrants yield; But freedom is our Sword and

land..... While peace and lib - er - ty lie bleed-ing.
wide..... With crimes and blood his hand em - bru - ing.
Shield... And all their arts are un - a - vail - ing.

CHORUS IN UNISON.

ff

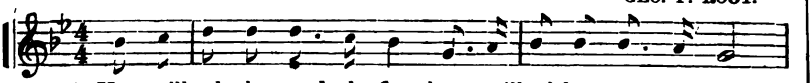
To arms, to arms ye brave! Th' a-veng - ing sword un-sheath!

March on! March on! All hearts re-solved on Vic - to - ry or death.

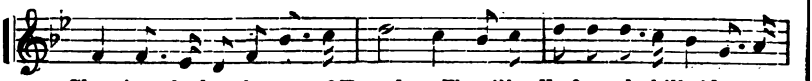
BATTLE CRY OF FREEDOM.

RALLYING SONG.

GEO. F. ROOT.



1. Yes, we'll ral - ly round the flag, boys, we'll ral-ly once a - gain,
2. We are springing to the call of our Brothers gone be - fore,
3. We will welcome to our numbers the loy - al, true and brave,
4. So we're springing to the call from the East and from the West,

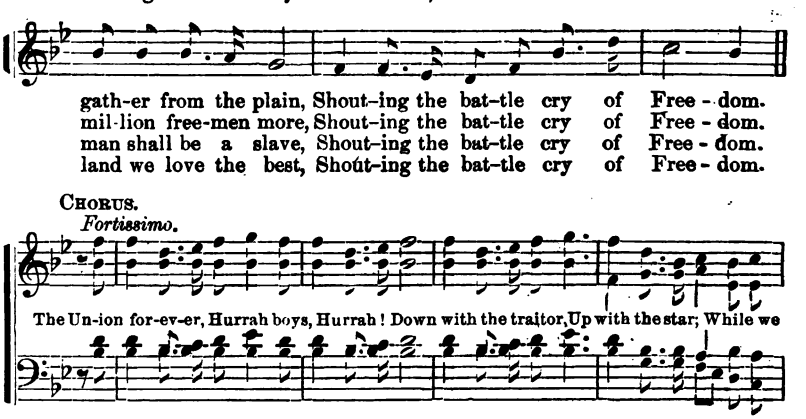


Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom, We will rally from the hill-side, we'll
Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom, And we'll fill the vacant ranks with a
Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom, And al-tho' they may be poor, not a
Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom, And we'll hurl the rebel crew from the

gath-er from the plain, Shout-ing the bat-tle cry of Free - dom.
mil-lion free-men more, Shout-ing the bat-tle cry of Free - dom.
man shall be a slave, Shout-ing the bat-tle cry of Free - dom.
land we love the best, Shout-ing the bat-tle cry of Free - dom.

CHORUS.

Fortissimo.



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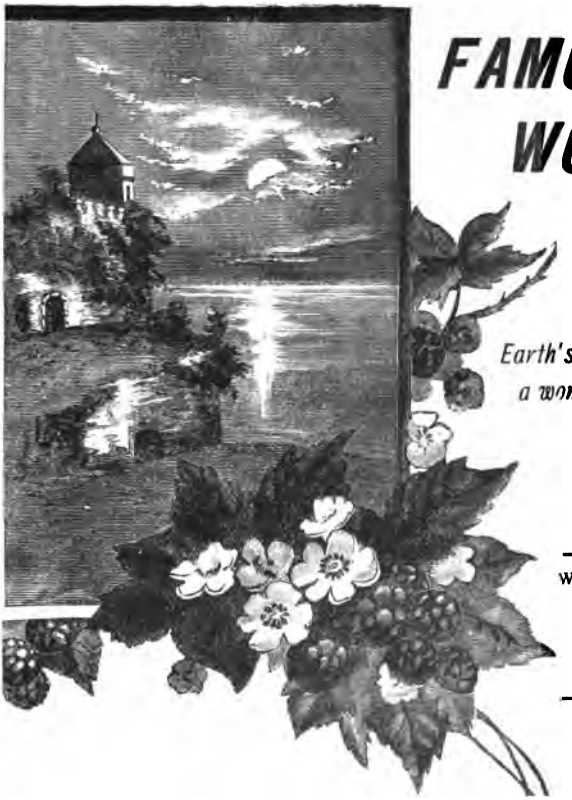

FAMOUS WOMEN.

Earth's noblest thing,
a woman perfected.

LOWELL.

Women have risen to high excellence in every art whereto they give their care.

ARIOSTO.

EDITED BY
CHARLES E. BOLTON.

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CLEVELAND, OHIO.
1884.

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SATURDAY EVENING, - - - - - - - FEBRUARY 2, 1884.

TENTH ENTERTAINMENT.

MUSICAL PRELUDE, from 6:15 to 6:40. BY THE EDUCATIONAL BUREAU ORCHESTRA.

C. BILLSON, Director. - - - - - - J. M. LELAND, Leader.

PROGRAMME.

1. Grand Promenade March.....M. Carl.
2. Medley Overture—Pretty as a Picture.....Catlin.
3. Concert Polka.....R. Eilenberg.
4. Waltz—Favorite.....Jos. Rixner.

BATTLE HYMN OF THE REPUBLIC, }
RUSSIAN HYMN, } - - - - - - BY THE AUDIENCE.

ANNUAL MEETING - - - - - - - - - - - - - from 6:50 to 7:00.

REPORTS OF Mr. C. E. BOLTON, Secretary, and Mr. W. H. DOAN, Treasurer. See pp. 335-337.
ELECTION of Officers and Executive Committee for 1884-85. - - - See p. 338.
Address, by - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - Gen'l M D. LEGGETT.

PIANO SOLO, from 7:00 to 7:10, - - - - - - - - BY DR. LOUIS MAAS.

The world-renowned European Pianist, Composer and Conductor.

PARAPHRASE DE CONCERT, (On Mendelssohn's Midsummer Night's Dream.) LISZT.

LECTURE PRELUDE, from 7:10 to 7:30, - - - - REV. C. S. POMEROY. D.D.

SUBJECT: "Cleveland Homes—Distinguished People." (Illustrated.)

SINGING SCHOOL, 7:30 to 7:45, - - Conducted by PROF. N. COE STEWART.

1. Die Wacht am Rhein. 2. Red, White and Blue. 3. Marseillaise Hymn. 4. Marching Through Georgia. 5. The Battle Cry of Freedom.

PRESIDING OFFICER - - - - - - - - - - - GEN'L M. D. LEGGETT,

President of the Cleveland Educational Bureau.

DEBATE, from 7:50 to 9:30, - - - { MRS. MARY A. LIVERMORE, of Boston, Mass. PROF. VAN BUREN DENSLOW, of Chicago, Ill.

QUESTION: "SHALL WOMEN HAVE THE RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE?"

Mrs. LIVERMORE speaks thirty minutes on the Affirmative, Prof. DENSLOW fifty minutes on the Negative. Then Mrs. LIVERMORE has twenty minutes to close Debate.

CLOSING NATIONAL HYMN, - - - - - - "MY COUNTRY 'TIS OF THEE."

TUNE—"America." (See music on another page.)

☞Everybody please stand and sing.☜

SPECIAL NOTICES.—THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE has decided not to give a Course of Entertainments next winter. A recess of one year will be taken.

CASE HALL ENTERTAINMENTS.—By the request of many citizens, Mr. C. E. Bolton will give his course of "Realistic Travels Through' Europe," in Case Hall. Subjects: "The British Isles of To-Day," "From the Polar Sea to Paris," "Through Germany and Russia to Constantinople," "Over the Alps to Rome." Three hundred illustrations. Course Tickets—Adults, $1.00; Children, 50 cents; Single admission, 50 cents. Postal cards will announce dates of Lectures, and time to reserve seats (free) at Van Epps & Co.'s book store. All ushers have tickets for sale, and will come if hand is raised.

☞SEE CIRCULAR AND SLIP IN BOOK.☜

SELF-COMMAND is the main elegance.—*Emerson.*

FLY the pleasure that bites to-morrow.—*George Herbert.*

A BEAUTIFUL and chaste woman is the perfect workmanship of God.—*Hermes.*

FALSEHOOD and cowardice are things that women highly hold in hate.—*Shakespeare.*

TO MANAGE men, one ought to have a sharp mind in a velvet sheath.—*George Eliot.*

IF WE wish to know the political and moral condition of a State, we must ask what rank women hold in it.—*Martin.*

O WOMAN! in ordinary cases so mere a mortal, how, in the great and rare events of life, dost thou swell into the angel!—*Bulwer.*

I GO for all sharing the privileges of the government who assist in bearing its burdens, by no means excluding women.—*Abraham Lincoln.*

IN VIEW of the terrible corruption of our politics, people ask, can we maintain universal suffrage? I say no, not without the aid of women.—*Bishop Gilbert Haven.*

A SERVANT applying for a situation was asked the reason of her having left her last place. "Please ma'am, it was because I were too good-lookin', an' visitors were always mistakin' me for the missis."

"HOW MUCH do you charge for the pants?" asked a rural customer. "Dot makes some difference eff you vants dem vor Suntay or efery tay. If you vants a sheap bair for efery day, dot bair vill pe two dollars, but if you vants dem bants vor Suntay, dey vill pe fife tollars und a helluf. Subbose you dakes um vor Suntay, und ven dey vos a little worn, you vears dem vor efery tay. By dot you safe two dollar on a fife-dollar pair of bants!"

A GENTLEMAN having missed his way, unfortunately met a boy with a pot of tar going to mark his father's sheep, asked the road to Banff, but was directed by so many turnings, right and left, that he agreed to take the boy behind him on the horse, as he was going near to the same place. Finding the boy docile, he gave him some advice relative to his future conduct, adding, occasionally, "Mark me well, my boy." "Yes, sir, I do." He repeated the injunction so often that the boy at last cried out: "Sir, I have no more tar."

FLOWERS PREACH TO US IF WE WILL HEAR.—CHRISTINA ROSSETTI.

This Illustration by courtesy of The New York Life Insurance Co.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

CLEVELAND, OHIO, Feb. 2nd, 1884.

Mr. President, and Members of the Cleveland Educational Bureau:

General John Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, on November 24th, opened the third annual series of winter entertainments by a very instructive lecture on "Industrial Education Abroad and at Home." This evening we close the course with a debate on the important question of Woman Suffrage. The phenominal success of the past two winters has again been repeated this year, thus demonstrating the need of this kind of work for the people, although many of our first patrons said they would never again submit to such crowding at the entrances. But when the doors were opened earlier, the great Tabernacle was filled by *half-past six*, hundreds coming without their suppers, all the suburbs sending large delegations, and many coming for twenty miles or more by train. One mechanic, who had lost his position by sickness, said he much desired to hear a special lecture, but having no money, and being unwilling to beg his way in, offered his note for *twenty-five cents*. Of course a ticket was given him. A young man, crippled for life, with a cheery face, is brought and put in his seat every night. Our oldest citizen, who remembers Cleveland with only five hundred inhabitants, sits close to the platform, so as not to lose a word. To entertain 4,000 people for three hours, especially at the close of sixty hours' labor, has not been an easy task.

The Management has attempted to present sound ideas in a crisp and entertaining manner, with pleasant surroundings. Four thousand fresh books have been given away by polite ushers each Saturday night. Five electric lights have converted the Tabernacle into a vast reading room; excellent orchestra music has invigorated and cheered, and exotic plants and flowers have had their refining influence. Scientific facts, often illustrated, have been compactly and briefly put in thirty-minute preludes, thus not wearying the audience. The Singing Schools have been a marked success. The mere standing up for a few minutes has been restful, and the songs have given comfort to many. Professor N. Coe Stewart, at the head of his "Singing Brigade," has intensified the patriotism of every National Song. He has been admirably seconded by orchestra, organ, and hundreds of teachers and graduates of our public schools.

Many prominent citizens have acted as Presiding Officers, in an able manner, among them the President of the Bureau, General M. D. Leggett, whose unselfish interest in this new method of education has been constant from the beginning.

From eight o'clock till half-past nine each Saturday night, we have been charmed by eloquence, recitation and melody, or we have traveled in search of knowledge in the "fairy land of nature," or in imagination through the Far West, and diagonally across Europe from the North Pole to Rome.

Miss Juliet Corson, of the "New York School of Cookery," gave a course of five lectures, free to the members of the Educational Bureau, as follows: Monday, Jan. 14th, "Marketing and Soup Making." Tuesday, Jan. 15th, "Good Bread and Simple Pastry." Wednesday, Jan. 16th, "Fish, Fowls and Sauces." Thursday, Jan. 17th, "Meats and Vegetables." Friday, Jan. 18th, "Food, Chemistry and Table Etiquette;" from 2:30 to 4:30 o'clock on afternoons of dates named. The admission, without Bureau Course Ticket, was Fifteen Cents, or Fifty Cents for the Course of Five Lectures. The total audiences numbered quite *fifteen thousand women.* Whole carcasses of animals were cut into suitable pieces on the platform by Mr. Joseph Rogers, and all kinds of plain cooking were done. Miss Corson won the enthusiastic approval of her immense classes, and well deserved the hearty vote of thanks and basket of flowers given her. The Management offers cordial thanks to the members of the Bureau for their faithful attendance, earnest attention, and unanimous support in abolishing encores, stamping the feet, and leaving the Tabernacle before the exercises ended.

Last summer, under the admirable leadership of Prof. J. M. Leland, the Bureau gave ten Open Air Concerts on the Public Square, and many thousand people, old and young, greatly enjoyed them. As in the cities of Europe, so in Cleveland, some provision should be made, by either the City Council, or permanent private benevolence, for open air concerts.

A brief report is made by our Treasurer, Mr. W. H. Doan. Prior to settlement of all collections and bills, it is not possible to more than approximate his accounts. In the interest of the ticket holders a late hour was adopted for selling single tickets. This change, and the price of Course Tickets, made twenty-five cents less than last season, together with other causes, naturally made our receipts less, while the cost of our entertainments has increased with the quality, and on account of more advertising and paid services. *Three cents* has been about the average cost to the members for each concert, lecture and book during the past three seasons.

The Bureau plan of educational effort for the people is most heartily endorsed by the press and prominent men throughout the country, and we hope a similar work may be accomplished in other cities.

Respectfully submitted,

C. E. BOLTON, *Secretary and Manager.*

☞ See Schedule on next page.

SCHEDULE SHOWING WORK FOR THE SEASON OF 1883-84.

No.	Date.	Musicals.	Preludes.	Subjects.	Presiding Officers.
	1883-84.				
1	Nov. 24...	Bureau Orchestra.	Chaplain A. G. Byers.....	Wrongs in Prisons and Poorhouses*.....	Mr. Samuel Mather.....
2	Dec. 1....	Bureau Orchestra.	Rev. Philip S. Moxom.....	His Level Best.....	Pres't Carroll Cutler, D.D..
3	Dec. 8....	Bureau Orchestra.	Rev. Wah ington Gladden.	The Workingman's Wrongs, and How to Right Them.....	Mr. W. D. Patterson.....
4	Dec. 15...	Bureau Orchestra.	Dr. C. F. Dutton.....	Sewerage and Ventilation*.....	Rev. D. H. Muller, D.D....
5	Dec. 22...	Bureau Orchestra.	Judge S. O. Griswold.....	Across the Atlantic,.....	Judge Stevenson Burke....
6	Jan'y 5...	Bureau Orchestra.	Hon. B. G. Northrup, LL.D.	Homes, and How to Improve Them.....	Mr. J. B. Meriam.....
7	Jan'y 12..	Bureau Orchestra.	C. C. Baldwin, Esq.....	Mounds, and Mound Builders*.....	Hon. Amos Townsend.....
8	Jan'y 19..	Bureau Orchestra.	Rev. N. S. Rulison.....	Marriage.....	Rt. Rev. G. T. Bedell, D.D.
9	Jan'y 26..	Bureau Orchestra.	Judge J. E. Ingersoll.....	Civil Service.....	Dr. G. C. E. Weber.....
10	Feb'y 2...	Bureau Orchestra.	Rev. C. S. Pomeroy, D.D....	Cleveland Homes—Distinguished People*.....	Gen'l M. D. Leggett.....

(SCHEDULE—Continued.)

Ten Open-Air Band Concerts were given in the Public Square last Summer.

No.	Date.	Entertainments.	Subjects.	Books for the People.
1	Nov. 24...	General John Eaton.....	Industrial Education Abroad and at Home.	Inventors and Inventions.....
2	Dec. 1....	Mr. Wm. Marshall.....	Wonders of the Far West*.....	Geology and Botany.....
3	Dec. 8....	Miss Helen Potter..... Miss Laura E. Dainty.....	Recitations and Impersonations.....	Facts About Capital and Labor.....
4	Dec. 15...	J. B. Gough, Esq.....	The Powers That Be.....	Mysteries of the Sea.....
5	Dec. 22...	Prof. Wm. C. Richards.....	The Fairy-Land of Nature*.....	People and Places.....
6	Jan'y 5...	Mr. C. E. Bolton.....	From the Polar Sea to Paris*.....	English and American Literature.....
7	Jan'y 12..	Mr. Wallace Bruce.....	Native Mettle.....	Good Manners.....
8	Jan'y 19..	Mr. C. E Bolton.....	Over the Alps to Rome*.....	Ancient Republics.....
9	Jan'y 26..	Fisk University Jubilee Singers	Slave and Other Songs.....	Germany.....
10	Feb'y 2...	Mrs. Mary A. Livermore... Prof. Van Buren Denslow.	Debate—Shall Woman Vote?.....	Famous Women.....

*Illustrated.

Miss Juliet Corson's Lessons in Cookery, attended by 15,000 women.

Average Attendance Saturday Nights,	**4,000**	**Total Books, Magazines, Maps and Papers Given Away,**	**167,200**
Cash Receipts, Three Seasons (Estimate),	**$17,500**	**Total Number Pages.**	**6,308,200**

TREASURER'S REPORT.

THE CLEVELAND EDUCATIONAL BUREAU.

IN ACCOUNT WITH

W. H. DOAN, TREASURER.

1884.	RECEIPTS.	
Feb. 2,	By sale of Course Tickets	$4,393 75*
Feb. 2,	By sale of Single Tickets	110 00*
Feb. 2,	By Advertisements in "Books for the People"	900 00*
Feb. 2,	By sale of Tickets to Miss Corson's Lessons in Cookery	129 90
Feb. 2,	By Interest, and Cash from other Sources	108 85*
		$5,642 50
June 1, 1883.	By Balance in Treasury	3,000 00*
		$8,642 50

1884.	DISBURSEMENTS.	
Feb. 2,	To Cash, Ten Concerts in Public Square Last Summer	500 00
Feb. 2,	To Cash, Thirty Orchestra Concerts, Lecture Preludes, Lectures, Concerts, Debates, etc	2,900 00*
Feb. 2,	To Cash, Services of Secretary and Assistant Treasurer, etc.	1,200 00
Feb. 2,	To Cash, 40,000 "Books for the People," Advertising, Printing, etc	2,000 00*
Feb. 2,	To Cash, Electric Light, Flowers, etc	149 35*
Feb. 2,	To Cash, W. H. Doan, for Rent of Tabernacle Ten Even-Evenings and Five Afternoons, Janitor, etc	337 09*
	Estimate of Disbursements, season 1883-4	$7,086 44
Feb. 2,	By Balance Cash	1,556 06*
		$8,642 50

The above is an appropriate statement, and the balance may be increased when collections are all made. On settlement of unadjusted bills the account will be properly audited and presented through the press to the public. The balance is deposited in the Society for Savings, to the credit of The Cleveland Educational Bureau. Respectfully submitted.

W. H. DOAN, *Treasurer.*

*Estimate.

☞ **PLEASE TO READ.—Nomination of Officers and Executive Committee for 1884-85, respectfully submitted to the Members of the Bureau for their consideration, at 6:50 o'clock this evening.**

CLEVELAND EDUCATIONAL BUREAU.

ORGANIZED BY THE BUSINESS MEN

FOR THEIR EMPLOYEES AND THE PEOPLE

MOTTO—"KNOW THYSELF."

OFFICERS.

President,

GEN. M. D. LEGGETT, President Brush Electric Company.

Vice-Presidents,

(CONSTITUTING AN ADVISORY BOARD.)

HON. JOHN H. FARLEY ..... Mayor of Cleveland.
GEN. ED. S. MEYER ..... Lawyer.
HON. MARTIN A. FORAN ..... Congressman.
MR. HENRY S. WHITTLESEY ..... Cashier First National Bank.
MR. THOMAS H. WHITE ..... President White Sewing Machine Company.
MR. J. B. MERIAM ..... Meriam & Morgan Paraffine Company.
JUDGE J. E. INGERSOLL ..... Prospect Street.
DR. C. F. DUTTON ..... Prospect Street.
MR. LEWIS W. DAY ..... Supervising Principal of Public Schools.
HON. J. C COVERT ..... Managing Editor of *The Cleveland Leader*.
REV. C. S. POMEROY, D.D ..... Prospect Street.
MR. L. W. BINGHAM ..... Superior Street.
MR. B. L. PENNINGTON ..... Water Street.
MR. W. D DRAKE ..... Seneca Street.
MR. DOUGLASS PERKINS ..... Euclid Avenue.

Secretary and Manager.

MR. C. E. BOLTON ..... Euclid Avenue.

Treasurer and Assistant.

MR. W. H. DOAN ..... Standard Block.
MR. W. H. GRISMAN ..... West Side.

Executive Committee.

MR. R. F. SMITH ..... Assistant Manager Pennsylvania Railroad.
MR. J. F. HOLLOWAY ..... President Cuyahoga Steam Furnace Company.
MR. H. R. HATCH ..... E. I. Baldwin, Hatch & Co.
MRS. J. C. DELAMATER ..... Franklin Avenue.
MRS. SARAH K. BOLTON ..... Euclid Avenue.
MR. HENRY D. COFFINBERRY ..... Globe Iron Works.
T. K. DISSETTE, ESQ ..... Lawyer.
MR. WILLIAM DOWNIE ..... Public Square.
MR. W. D. FOLSOM ..... Cedar Avenue.
MR. JULIUS KING ..... Superior Street.

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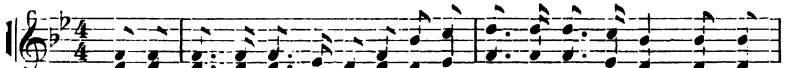
HOW TO GET THE BOOKS BOUND.—Please take as early as possible the complete series of "BOOKS FOR THE PEOPLE," 1881-82, 1882-83, 1883-84 series to Mr. J. GEORGE ZAPF, Book-Binder, Room No. 22, Leader Building, 144 Superior Street, who will bind the pamphlets in beautiful red cloth for thirty-five cents each series—cash to be paid invariably in advance. The pamphlets bound will be ready for delivery in thirty days. 1,200 of last year's series of pamphlets were bound: and each book is well worth $1.25.

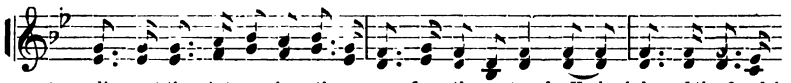
RESOLUTION OF THANKS.

Resolved, That the sincere thanks of the Cleveland Educational Bureau are hereby tendered to the parties named below, for valuable and varied services, in most cases rendered gratuitously: The Cleveland Press, The Public Library; Mr. Samuel Mather, President Carroll Cutler, D.D., Mr. W. D. Patterson, Rev. D. H. Muller, D.D., Judge Stevenson Burke, Mr. J. B. Meriam, Hon. Amos Townsend, Rt. Rev. G. T. Bedell, D.D., Dr. G. C. E. Weber, and Gen. M. D. Leggett, for presiding at our entertainments; Chaplain A. G. Byers, Rev. Philip S. Moxom, Rev. Washington Gladden, Dr. C. F. Dutton, Judge S. O. Griswold, Hon. B. G. Northrup, LL.D., C. C. Baldwin, Esq., Rev. N. S. Rulison, Judge J. E. Ingersoll, and Rev. C. S. Pomeroy, D.D.; Mr. W. H. Doan, for a reduction of $440 in rental of the People's Tabernacle; General John Eaton, for 8,000 pamphlets on the U. S. Bureau of Education and its Work; The Tabernacle Choir, for splendid voices and prompt service; and to the following persons, many of whom have suffered inconvenience that the public might be served in this place week after week: Mr. William Downie, of our Executive Committee, who for three seasons has zealously labored for the comfort of the audiences; Mr. W. D. Drake, Mr. L. W. Bingham, Mr. B. L. Pennington, Mr. W. D. Folsom, Mr. William H. Grisman, Mr. R. W. Crawford, Mr. John Singleton, Mr. W. G. Bowman, Mr. J. F. Cowdry, Mr. Roy, Mr. Charles L. Bateman, Mr. Geo. Miller, Mr. W. H. Hartigan, Mr. Lynch, Mr. Walter Peck, Mr. Carlos Whitney, Mr. F. A. Pope, Mr. H. Reynolds, Mr. App, Mr. H. Henson, Mr. F. W. Brunner, Mr. T. Paddock, Mr. William Farren, and others. Thanks are also due many of our Business Firms, who have kindly sold tickets; Mr. John Bevan and wife have also earned our best wishes.

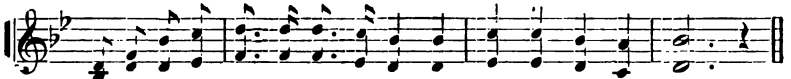
BATTLE HYMN OF THE REPUBLIC. (JOHN BROWN.)



1. Mine eyes have seen the glo - ry of the com - ing of the Lord, He is

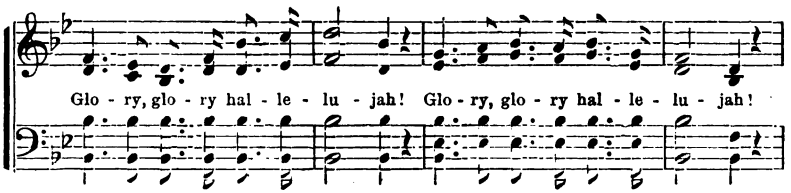


trampling out the vintage where the grapes of wrath are stored; He hath loosed the fateful

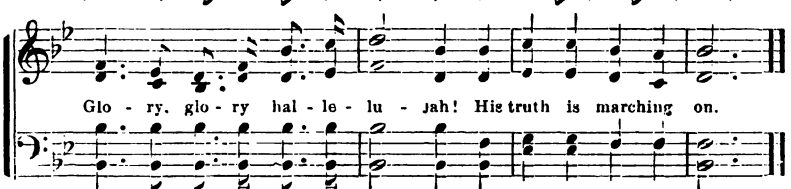


light'ning of his ter - ri - ble swift sword, His truth is march-ing on.

CHORUS.



Glo - ry, glo - ry hal - le - lu - jah! Glo - ry, glo - ry hal - le - lu - jah!



Glo - ry, glo - ry hal - le - lu - jah! His truth is marching on.

2 I have seen Him in the watchfires of a hundred circling camps,
They have builded Him an altar in the evening dews and damps;
I can read His righteous sentence by the dim and flaring lamps,
His day is marching on.—*Chorus.*

3 I have read a fiery gospel, writ in burnished rows of steel:
"As ye deal with my contemners, so with you my grace shall deal!"
Let the Hero, born of woman, crush the serpent with his heel.
Since God is marching on.—*Chorus.*

4 He has sounded forth the trumpet that shall never call retreat;
He is sifting out the hearts of men before His judgment seat;
Oh! be swift, my soul, to answer Him! be jubilant, my feet.
Our God is marching on.—*Chorus.*

5 In the beauty of the lilies, Christ was born across the sea;
With a glory in his bosom that transfigures you and me!
As he died to make men holy, let us die to make men free.
While God is marching on.—*Chorus.*

RUSSIAN HYMN.

With sustained tone. Words by REV S. F. SMITH.

1. God ev - er glo - ri - ous, Sov'-reign of na - tions,
2. Still may thy bless - ing rest, Fath - er most Ho - ly,

Wav - ing the ban - ner of peace o'er our land,
O - ver each moun - tain, rock, riv - er and shore,

Thine is the vic - to - ry, Thine the sal - va - tion,
Sing hal - le - lu - jah Shout in ho - san - nas,

ff Strong to de - liv - er, Own we thy hand.
God keep our coun - try, Free ev - er more.

RED, WHITE AND BLUE.

Maestoso.

1. O Co-lum-bia! the gem of the o-cean, The home of the brave and the free, The
2. When war winged its wide desolation, And threatened the land to deform, The
3. The U-nion, the U-nion for - ev - er, Our glorious nation's sweet hymn, May the

shrine of each patriot's de-vo-tion, A world of - fers hom-age to thee. Thy
ark then of freedom's foun-da-tion, Co - lum-bia, rode safe thro' the storm; With her
wreaths it has won never with-er, Nor the star of its glo - ry grow dim! May the

mandates make heroes as - sem-ble, When Lib - er-ty's form stands in view, Thy
gar-lands of vic - t'ry a - round her, When so proudly she bore her brave crew, With her
ser-vice u - ni - ted ne'er sev - er, But they to their col - ors prove true! The

banners make tyr-an - ry tremble, When borne by the red, white and blue.
flag proudly float-ing be - fore her, The boast of the red, white and blue.
Ar-my and Na - vy for - ev - er, Three cheers for the red, white and blue.

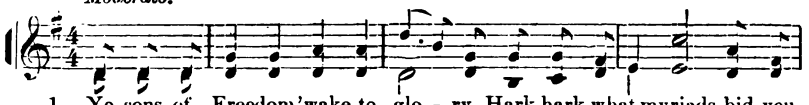
CHORUS.

When borne by the red, white and blue, When borne by the red, white and blue, Thy
The boast of &c.
Three cheers for &c.

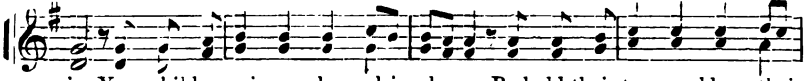
ban - ners make tyr-an - ny trem-ble, When borne by the red, white and blue.

THE MARSEILLAISE HYMN.

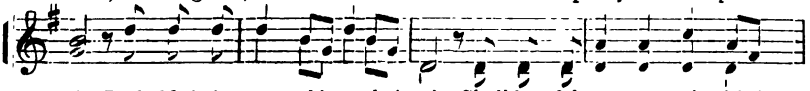
Moderato.



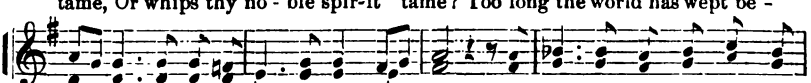
1. Ye sons of Freedom'wake to glo - ry, Hark,hark,what myriads bid you
2. Now,now the dang'rous storm is roll-ing,Which treach'rous Kings confederate
3. O LIB - ER-TY! can man re - sign thee? Once having felt thy generous



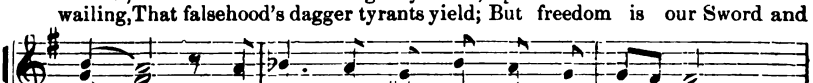
rise, Your children,wives and grandsires hoary; Be-hold their tears and hear their
raise, The dogs of war, let loose, are howling, And lo! our walls and cit - ies
flame,Can dungeons,bolts and bars confine thee! Or whips thy no-ble spir - it



cries,Be-hold their tears and hear their cries;Shall hateful ty -rants mis-chief
blaze,And lo! our wall and cit-ies blaze,And shall we base - ly view the
tame, Or whips thy no - ble spir-it tame? Too long the world has wept be -

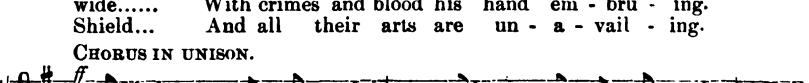


breeding With hireling hosts,a ruf-fian band, Af-fright and des - o - late the
ru - in;While lawless force with guilty stride, Spread des-o - la - tion far and
wailing,That falsehood's dagger tyrants yield; But freedom is our Sword and

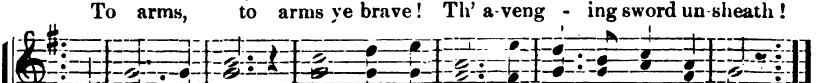


land..... While peace and lib - er - ty lie bleed-ing.
wide..... With crimes and blood his hand em - bru - ing.
Shield... And all their arts are un - a - vail - ing.

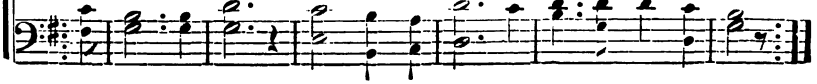
CHORUS IN UNISON.



To arms, to arms ye brave! Th' a-veng - ing sword un-sheath!

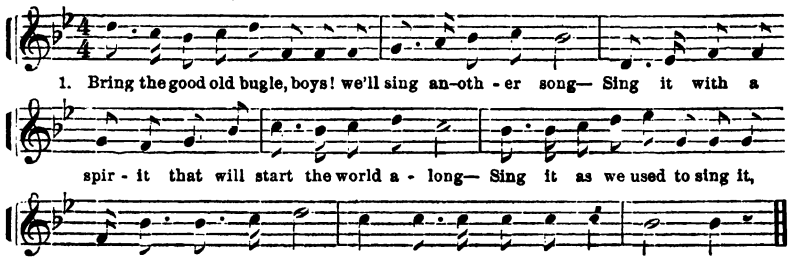


March on! March on! All hearts re-solved on Vic - to - ry or death.

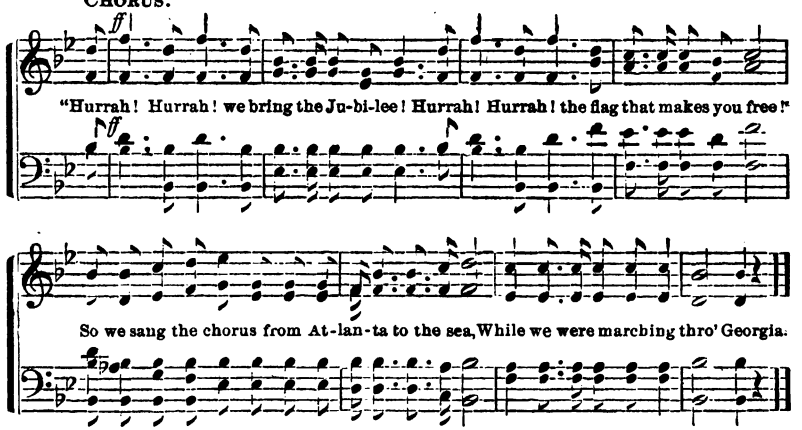


MARCHING THROUGH GEORGIA.

Words and Music by HENRY C. WORK.



CHORUS.



2. How the darkeys shouted when they heard the joyful sound!
How the turkeys gobbled which our Commissary found;
How the sweet-potatoes, even started from the ground,
While we were marching through Georgia.

3. Yes, and there were Union men who wept with joyful tears,
When they saw the honor'd flag they had not seen for years;
Hardly could they be restrained from breaking forth in cheers,
While we were marching through Georgia.

4. "Sherman's dashing yankee boys will never reach the coast!"
So the saucy rebels said, and 'twas a handsome boast,
Had they not forgot, alas! to reckon with the host,
While we were marching through Georgia.

5. So we made a thorough-fare for Freedom and her train,
Sixty miles in latitude--three hundred to the main;
Treason fled before us, for resistance was in vain,
While we were marching through Georgia.

THE GUARD ON THE RHINE.

(DIE WACHT AM RHEIN.)

f *Cres.*

1. There comes a call like thunder's peal, The break-ers roar, the clank of steel; The
2. By hundred thousands forth they stream, Their eyes like flashing light'ning gleam, The
3. To heav'n they raised their gleaming eyes. The heroes saw them from their skies, And
4. Loud rings the oath, the wa-ters flow, In the free breeze the banners blow; The

ff

Rhine! the Rhine! the glorious Rhine! Who will protect the riv-er's line?
Ger-man hon-est, strong and brave; These will the sa-cred land-mark save.
swore, with yearning for the strife, "Dear is the free Rhine as our life!"
Rhine! the Rhine! un-fet-tered Rhine! All Ger-man-y will guard its line.

CHORUS.

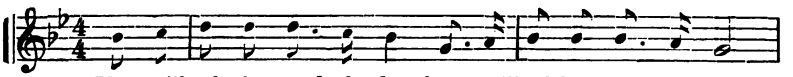
Dear Fatherland, be comfort thine, Dear Fatherland, thou need'st not pine; Firm stands thy

shield, the guard, the guard on the Rhine, Firm stands thy shield, the guard, the guard on the Rhine

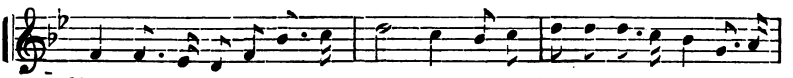
BATTLE CRY OF FREEDOM.

RALLYING SONG.

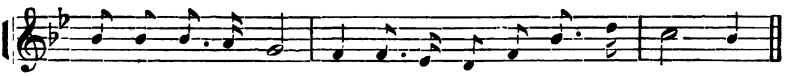
GEO. F. ROOT.



1. Yes, we'll ral - ly round the flag, boys, we'll ral-ly once a - gain,
2. We are springing to the call of our Brothers gone be - fore,
3. We will welcome to our numbers the loy - al, true and brave,
4. So we're springing to the call from the East and from the West,



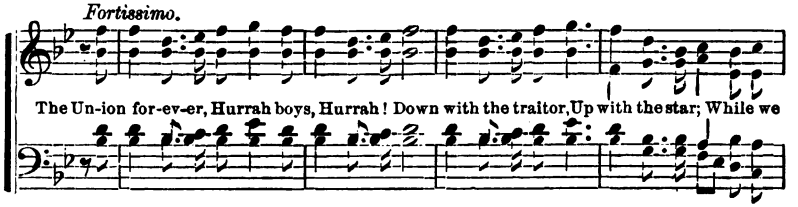
Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom, We will rally from the hill-side, we'll
Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom, And we'll fill the vacant ranks with a
Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom, And al-tho' they may be poor, not a
Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom, And we'll hurl the rebel crew from the



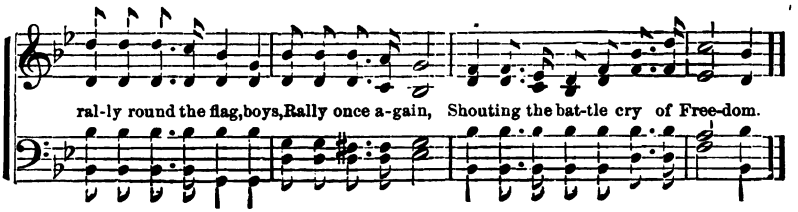
gath-er from the plain, Shout-ing the bat-tle cry of Free - dom.
mil-lion free-men more, Shout-ing the bat-tle cry of Free - dom.
man shall be a slave, Shout-ing the bat-tle cry of Free - dom.
land we love the best, Shout-ing the bat-tle cry of Free - dom.

CHORUS.

Fortissimo.

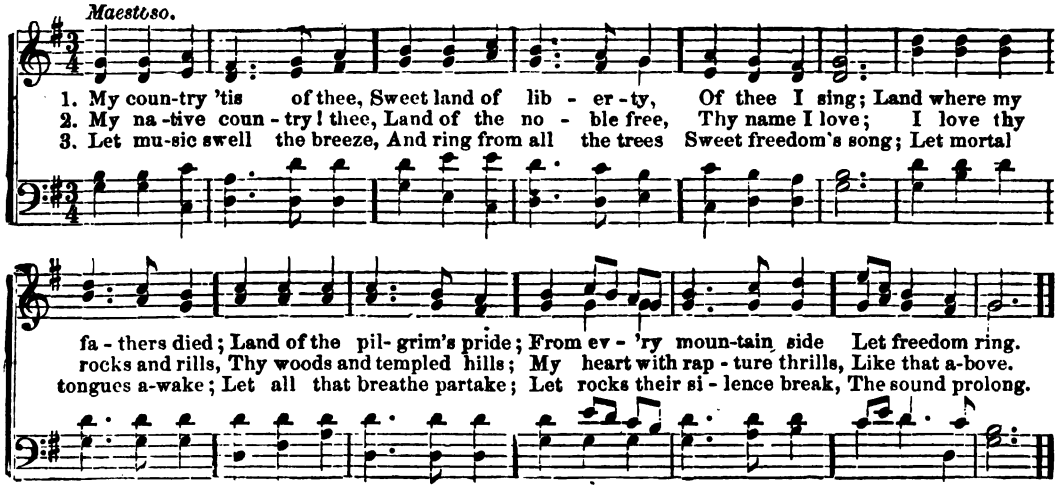


The Un-ion for-ever, Hurrah boys, Hurrah! Down with the traitor, Up with the star; While we



ral-ly round the flag, boys, Rally once a-gain, Shouting the bat-tle cry of Free-dom.

AMERICA.—National hymn.



FAMOUS WOMEN.

SARAH K. BOLTON.

IN LITERATURE.

NO COUNTRY has come to its golden age without the high intellectual development of at least a portion of its women. Under the brilliant rule of Pericles, when the streets of Athens were thronged with orators, philosophers, and artists, when Socrates held his audiences spell-bound,

ASPASIA (B.C. 470),

Was the idol of the people. Her husband, Pericles, planned great architectural works to beautify the city, built the Parthenon, made public festivals accessible to the poor, guarded the elective franchise so that there might be no corruption, and made Athens the admiration of the world. It is said that she taught him oratory, and Socrates declared that she wrote one of his most beautiful obituary speeches. Grote, the historian, says that many of the women of Greece lived in strict seclusion both before and after marriage; "everything which concerned their lives, their happiness, or their rights, was determined or managed for them by male relatives, and they seem to have been destitute of all mental culture and accomplishments. Their society presented no charm nor interest." Pericles was married to such a woman from family considerations, but he became divorced, and concurred with her male relatives in giving her away to another husband. His devotion to Aspasia lasted as long as he lived. When she, like Socrates, was accused of contempt for the gods, Pericles defended her before the judges and won the case. Though renowned for self-mastery, he was moved to tears as he pleaded for her. She married a grazier, later who, through her influence, became the chief man in Athens.

A century before this time, lived

SAPPHO (B.C. 570),

A poet, whose nine books were arranged by the later Greeks, according to meter. She was born in Mitylene, and married a distinguished gentleman of

Andros, who died, leaving one child, a daughter, Cleis. After his death, she traveled much, and founded a school of poetry and philosophy, in which she endeavored to inspire the Lesbian ladies with a taste for intellectual pursuits. A hymn to Venus, an ode to a friend, and sundry fragments are all that remain of her writings. After her death, says Mary Cowden Clarke, in her "World-Noted Women," Sicily erected a statue to her, and the inhabitants of her native Mitylene stamped her image on their coin. Altars and temples were raised to her memory, and her fame spread far and wide.

HYPATIA (B.C. 370).

Illustrious as a philosopher, was the daughter of Theon, a distinguished mathematician and astronomer of Alexandria. She studied under Plutarch, the head of the Athenian school; returning to Alexandria her lecture-room was thronged by the best in the city. She was the author of two mathematical treatises and of astronomical tables. So beautiful was she in person, so sound in judgment and so unassuming, although, says Brucker, she excelled most of the philosophers of her age in mathematical and philosophical science, she won the admiration of all. She is said to have provoked the hostility of Cyril, bishop of Alexandria, on account of her religious opinions; and, whether with or without his sanction, she was pulled out of her chariot as she was returning home from her schools, dragged into a church, her body torn in pieces, and the fragments buried. The whole country mourned for her, and the Alexandrian Church was disgraced.

Bishop Dupanloup, in his "Studious Women," gives many illustrations of the scholarship of the nuns. In the early centuries of the Christian era, Lioba, the friend and co-worker of St. Boniface, spoke and wrote Latin, and was well versed in theology and ecclesiastical law. He requested that after her death she might be laid beside him. "I wish," said he, "to await near her, the day of resurrection." St. Catharine taught Christianity and confuted the Pagan philosophers in the schools of Alexandria. Perpetua, whose dreadful martyrdom Miss Kavanagh describes in her "Women of Christianity," was a writer. A lady of rank in Carthage, she was brought with her infant child, and Felicitas, her slave, into the arena, before the wild beasts. Stripped of their clothing, they were put into nets and exposed to a wild cow. The crowd disapproving of this, they were pulled out of the net, some garments given them, and the cow let loose upon them. The animal tossed both the delicate woman and the slave upon her horns, and then a gladiator finished the work, Perpetua guiding the sword in his unsteady hand, to her own throat.

HILDEGARDE, (1098–1180),

The most celebrated of the learned nuns at Rupertsberg, near Bingen on the Rhine, wrote treatises on the laws of nature which preceded the discoveries of modern science. Montalembert says that literary studies were cultivated "in the women's monasteries in England with no less care and perseverance than in those for men, and, perhaps, with still greater enthusiasm." Gertrude, in the reign of Dagobert of France, knew the Scriptures by heart, and translated them into Greek.

VITTORIA COLONNA, (1490–1547),

Belonged to a very rich and powerful family in Italy, being the grand niece of Pope Martin V. She was educated in the island of Ischia, with the boy Marquis of Pescara to whom she was betrothed when an infant. He was also of a noble famlly, his sister-in-law being Governor of the island, and says Trollope, in his "Decade of Italian Women," one of the most remarkable women of her time. When Vittoria was nineteen they were married with great splendor. Two years later he went to war, and though the only surviving scion of an ancient name, he refused to keep himself from the risks of the battle field, and was soon taken prisoner. For nearly sixteen years he held the highest positions in the Italian army, and would have betrayed his Emperor, it is believed, for the prospect of being made king of Naples, had not Vittoria pleaded with him to be honorable. He was a harsh and ambitious man, but devotedly loved by his famous wife. At his death, he was buried with great magnificence at Naples.

She was now a widow of thirty-six, very beautiful, rich, and the most celebrated women in Italy. Stunned with her grief, she determined to enter a convent, but was prevented by a poet Bishop, through whose influence Pope Paul III. forbade the nuns to allow her to take the veil. Hitherto, though educated in the classics and all the learning of the day, she had written but little. Now she devoted her whole time to poetry. Her first one hundred and thirty-four sonnets were almost entirely "In Memoriam," for her husband, to whom she seems to have attributed all honor and genius. The beauty and elegance of her verse was on every lip. The great men of the age vied with each other in doing homage to her. Going to Rome, she received a perfect ovation. Emperor Charles V. visited her. At Ferrara, the court invited the most distinguished men of letters of Venice and Lombardy, to meet her. Her correspondence with leading men on religious and other prominent matters shows breadth of mind and the highest nobility of character. Bernardo Tasso made her the subject of many poems; Contarini dedicated to her his book "On Free Will." Chief among those who well nigh idolized her was Michael Angelo, when he

was sixty-three and she forty-seven. The rugged man was softened and ennobled by the tender and gifted Vittoria, and through her influence it is believed, became a Christian. For ten years their friendship was beautiful. She would never marry, remaining faithful, as she thought, to her first love. At her death, when she was fifty-seven, Michael Angelo watched by her bedside. Years afterwards he declared that he had never ceased to regret that in that last solemn moment he had not pressed his lips, for the first time and the last, to the marble forehead, which in life had been, to him, too sacred to touch.

OLYMPIA MORATA (1526–1555),

Was of a noted family in Ferrara, Italy, and educated with Annie, of the princely house of Este, who married Francis, Duke of Guise. At sixteen, she composed a defense of Cicero against his calumniators, wrote most polished Greek and Latin letters and poetry, and translated much from Italian into Latin. After this she studied the higher branches of philosophy and theology. She frequently lectured in the classic languages, before courtiers and professors, and all were astonished at her erudition. Severe persecutions being instituted against the Lutherans, she was obliged to leave Italy, and married a medical professor, in the famous University of Heidelberg. Her fame having spread over nearly all Europe, the Elector of Saxony offered her the Greek professorship in the University, which she was obliged to decline, on account of her shattered health. She died five years after her marriage, at the age of twenty-nine, with these words on her lips, "I am all gladness; I can scarcely see you; but all places appear to me to be full of the fairest flowers." Her husband died in less than a year. Her works, in Latin and Greek, are found in the Bodleian Library, at Oxford, and in the Royal Library, at Berlin.

MARGARET ROPER (1508–1544),

Was the daughter of Sir Thomas More, Lord High Chancellor of England, and best friend of Henry VIII. A man of profound learning, he spared no pains nor expense to educate his three daughters. Margaret, the best beloved, perhaps from her devotion to him, was skilled in Greek, Latin, music, logic, philosophy, astronomy, and mathematics. She translated the Ecclesiastical History of Eusebius into Latin, and her published works contain epistles, poems, orations and treatises. Learning was obtained by her only as it is obtained by others, through hard work. She wrote that the little wisdom she had acquired, "Soe oft gives me the headache to distraction, I marvel not at Jupiter's payn in his head, when the goddess of wisdom sprang therefrom full growne." Her father, in a Latin poem, advises a friend thus on the choice of a wife, showing that a learned woman makes the best wife and

mother: "May she be learned, if possible, or, at least, capable of being made so. A woman thus accomplished will be always drawing sentences and maxims of virtue out of the best authors of antiquity. You will find in her an even, cheerful, good-humored friend, and an agreeable companion for life. She will infuse knowledge early into your children, and from their infancy train them up to wisdom. Whatever company you are engaged in, you will long to be at home; and retire with delight, from the society of men, to one who is so dear, so knowing, and so amiable. You will spend, with pleasure, whole days and nights in her conversation, and be ever finding out new beauties in her discourse." Probably no man ever married an educated woman without being proud of her. Such a woman holds the affection of a man long after beauty has lost its power.

Margaret Roper was not only the friend and correspondent of the brilliant Erasmus, who called her *Britanniæ Decus*, the ornament of Britian, but of other famous men of the time. Her husband was like herself, scholarly and accomplished. When her father, opposing the wicked divorce of Henry VIII. from Queen Catherine, that he might marry Anne Boleyn, was imprisoned in the tower, Margaret showed the beauty of her character. Her letters were an unfailing source of delight to the noble old man, who, forbidden pen and ink, wrote answers to her *with a coal.* After he was sentenced to death, because he would not acknowledge the king as the supreme head of the church, she fell upon his neck, and the parting was so heart-breaking that the guards were moved to tears. When the fatal stroke was about to be given, he moved his beard aside, mumuring, "Pity that should be cut; that has not committed treason." "With such strange words," says Froude, "the strangest, perhaps, ever uttered at such a time, the lips most famous through Europe for eloquence and wisdom, closed for ever."

His head was hung over London Bridge, according to the barbarous custom, and, for having it removed, Margaret was thrown into prison. Nine years after, at her early death, by her desire, this head was placed in her arms, as she lay in her coffin, and buried with her. Her daughter, Mary, translated "Eusebius," from Latin into English, and became, says Roger Ascham, "the ornament of her sex, and of the court of Queen Mary."

ANNA MARIA VON SCHURMAN (1607–1678),

Born at Cologne, was called the modern Sappho. She understood Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Chaldee, Arabic, and Ethiopic, and conversed readily in French, English, and Italian. She was visited by the most illustrious persons of the age, and Cardinal Richelieu showed her great public favor. She had a fine

memory, and was exceptionally diligent. Huyghens, the Dutch poet, and Solmasius, proud that a woman could be such a scholar—she was called the "Torch of Wisdom"—spread her praises abroad. William Penn visited her in Friesland, where she died at the age of seventy-one.

ANNE LEFEVRE DACIER (1654–1720),

Was the daughter of a learned French critic and Greek professor, and the wife of a scholar of kindred mind and pursuits. "Their union," says Hallam, "was facetiously called the wedding of Latin and Greek. But each of this learned couple was skilled in both languages." She edited the classics for the use of the Dauphin, and translated Anacreon, Sappho, Plautus, Aristophanes, Terence, the Iliad and Odyssey into French. So studious was she that, it is said, she did not visit more than six times in the year, and devoted her whole day to study. Her marriage proved a singularly happy one, and much of her most successful work was done during her wifehood. Severe study did not break her constitution, as she lived to the good age of sixty-nine. Study kills few men or women; much party-going, and fashionable dissipation, have ruined thousands.

MARIA GAETANA AGNESI (1718–1799),

Read Greek and studied Hebrew at eleven, and at thirteen wrote in Italian, French and German. When she was twenty, she had published 191 theses. Her books on mathematics popularized algebra in Italy, and she was rewarded by Pope Benedict XIV., with the mathematical chair in the University of Bologna; a great honor for either man or woman.

Anne, the mother of Lord Bacon, was both a linguist and a theologian. She translated Bishop Jewel's "Apologia," from the Latin; and twenty-five sermons, on "Predestination and Election," from the Tuscan. So great was her renown for learning, that Theodore Beza, the celebrated Greek scholar and head of the Protestant Church in Geneva, after Calvin, dedicated his "Meditations" to her. Her sister, the wife of Lord Burleigh, was the best Greek scholar of her age, among women, next to Lady Jane Grey. To talk of the inferiority of women, or their inability to go through a classical course in college, seems ludicrous, in view of such facts as these.

LAURA BASSI (1711–1778),

Was the daughter of a Doctor of Law, whose house was frequented by scientific men. While a child, Laura could translate Greek and Latin at sight. She studied metaphysics and natural philosophy, under the famous physician, Tacconi, and mathematics under Manfredi. To obtain her degree, she was

obliged to hold a public philosophical discussion in Bologna. She was now to be made a member of the College of the Doctors of Philosophy. On the 12th of May, 1732, flags were waving, bells ringing, and the city was in gala dress for the public presentation of the silver laurel wreath. Speeches were made in Latin, and she, dressed in the University gown, responded in the same language. A medal was struck in commemoration of the day. For twenty-eight years she held the chair as Doctor of Philosophy, and teacher also in Natural Philosophy. She married a physician six years after her election to a professorship, and became the mother of twelve children, finding time for all her professional duties. Elena Cornaro, of Venice, at the age of thirty-two, was made Doctor of Philosophy in the University of Padua.

ENGLISH AND FRENCH WOMEN.

LADY MARY WORTLEY MONTAGU (1690–1762).

W. H. Davenport Adams, in his book on "Woman's Work and Worth," which should be owned by every woman, says: "It seems no exaggeration to say that the intellectual and even the moral inferioity of woman was one of the cardinal dogmas accepted in the first half of the eighteenth century. Almost the first earnest and influential advocate of woman's culture was Lady Montagu, with whom begins the long and brilliant list of really illustrious English women." She was the daughter of the Duke of Kingston, received a solid education, translated from the Latin, and was the flattered friend of Addison and of Pope, who finally quarreled with her. Her husband, being made ambassador to Constantinople, she accompanied him, and her letters are marvels of fine and graphic description. At Belgrade she observed the process of inoculation for small-pox, and tested it on her only son, five years old. On her return to England, at her suggestion, it was tried on five persons condemned to death. The doctors predicted sad consequences, and the clergy said it was a direct interference with the will of God! and that she was a most unnatural mother. The marriage, opposed by her father, did not prove a happy one. Her love of satire, and her disregard for the opinions of those about her, were most injurious to herself. Her daughter married George III.'s favorite minister, the Earl of Bute.

HANNAH MORE (1745–1833),

Was the daughter of a village schoolmaster, in Stapleton, England, and educated at a famous seminary kept by her sisters, where she afterwards

became associate. At sixteen she wrote a pastoral drama, which was not published till eleven years after. While on a visit to London, she obtained an introduction to the famous circle of Johnson, Burke, Garrick, and Sir Joshua Reynolds. She wrote several plays—one the tragedy of "Percy," which Garrick brought out, bringing her nearly $4,000. This play was translated into French and German. She soon began to devote herself entirely to religious and educational writing. A monthly periodical, opposed to infidelity, edited by her, contained the "Shepherd of Salisbury Plain," which attained an enormous circulation. Her most popular book, "Cœlebs in Search of a Wife," went through ten editions in one year. From her writings she accumulated $150,000, one-third of which she bequeathed to charity. She established schools in the mining districts, where the people were nearly barbarous, and did good in all possible ways. She was a most studious woman; at eight years of age studying Latin; at twelve, French; and later, Spanish and Italian. She was engaged, early in life, to a Mr. Turner, who postponed the marriage so many times that she finally discarded him. He insisted on sending her a thousand dollars yearly, and, at his death, for he always continued her warm friend, left her $5,000. With rare modesty, he said: "Providence had overruled his wishes to be the husband of Hannah More, and that she was intended for higher things." She received two other offers, but preferred to remain single that she might accomplish more with her pen. However, as it is generally possible for a woman to do, she retained the life-long friendship of both these lovers, one of whom was the well-known writer, Dr. Langhorne, Vicar of Blagdon. Hannah More lived to be nearly ninety, and died beloved the world over for her cheerfulness and nobility of character.

MARY RUSSELL MITFORD (1786-1855).

Miss Mitford lived for forty years among the scenes described in "Our Village," a sweet-tempered woman, who wasted her money on an amiable father whose hobby was speculation. Her "Recollections of a Literary Life" are very interesting.

MADAME D'ARBLAY (1752–1840).

Frances Burney was the daughter of Dr. Burney, a musician in London, whose house was the resort of distinguished people. Fanny, as she was called, was most observing, but timid. At fifteen she began to keep a journal. Her stepmother discouraged all writing, and the girl burned the short stories she had scribbled. Her first novel, "Evelina," conceived when she was fifteen, was not written till she was twenty-six. It was declined by the first publisher to whom it was offered. The second took it and paid her $100, while he

made out of it $7,500. The city was enthusiastic over the young author, and she confessed to Sir Walter Scott that she could only give vent to her joy by dancing around a mulberry tree in her father's garden. Burke sat up all night to finish it. Sir Joshua Reynolds said he would give $250 to know the author, and Dr. Johnson, the kind-hearted, gruff old scholar took "little Burney," as he called her, in his arms, and kissed her. She now occupied the position of "keeper of the Robes of the Queen," and for five years endured the aristocratic drudgery. She helped to dress the Queen three times a day, could never sit while in attendance upon her Majesty, and with no time for writing, it was to her a slave's life. She married Richard d'Arblay, a French artillery officer, poor, but gentlemanly. She wrote three other novels, "Cecilia," the best; and the memoirs of her father, eight years before her death, at the age of eighty-seven. She was the friend of Hannah More, Wilberforce, Talleyrand, Madame de Stael, and scores of other noted ones. She helped to purify fiction. After her came Mrs. Radcliffe, whom some regard as the true founder of the English school of romance.

MARIA EDGEWORTH (1767-1849), JANE AUSTEN (1775-1827),

the former, daughter of an English novelist, of good cheer, having that hope and confidence which are said to be necessary to the development of mental powers, wrote her first novel, "Castle Rackrent," in 1801. In the next sixteen years appeared "Belinda," "Popular Tales," "Ormond," etc. She never desired to marry—possibly because her father had married four times—a brilliant, unsteady, unbalanced man, always inventing, always losing money—who needed Maria's good sense and judgment. She wrote with the greatest ease, even when conversation was carried on about her, yet with great care. Byron said of her, that "her conversation was as quiet as herself. One would never have guessed she could write her name." Sir Walter Scott had the greatest admiration for her in the power of sketching characters, and her strength. She had a warm heart, with her cold exterior, and was easily moved to tears. Pope says: "The finest minds, like the finest metals, dissolve the easiest."

Jane Austen was born at Steventon, where her father had been rector for forty years. Her first work, finished when she was twenty-eight, could not find a publisher. "Sense and Sensibility," appearing anonymously, was published at her own expense; and so fearful was she that it would be a failure, that she saved money from her income that she might meet the loss. So unpopular was it at this time for a woman to be considered a writer, that to save the feelings of her family, she was compelled to cover up her manuscript by some muslin which she kept for the purpose when genteel people came in! Her other

novels, "Pride and Prejudice," "Mansfield Park" and "Emma" were all successful. Walter Scott said: "There's a finishing off in some of her scenes that is really above everybody else." She was very observant, delicately satirical, and described with great accuracy English domestic life. Her books were translated into French, and are still read.

MADAM DE STAEL (1766–1817).

Jeffrey said of her, that she was "the most powerful writer that her country has produced since the time of Voltaire and Rousseau, and the greatest writer, of a woman, that any time or any country has produced." She was the only child of Monsieur Neckar, a wealthy Swiss banker and Minister of Finance to Louis XVI. The idol of her father, she was given the finest education possible. Surrounded by the ablest men of the country, in her home, she soon became renowned in conversation, especially upon political subjects. Her father did not wish her to write, and at his request her mother gave up literary composition because M. Necker could not bear to think that his presence should ever be considered an interruption. Not a very unselfish love to stifle the talent of a wife and daughter, so that they might be free and unoccupied to entertain him. And yet he loved them both devotedly, as he believed. The young girl, Germaine, therefore, wrote out of his sight, on odd bits of paper, so as not to distress him. She was ardent and impulsive, with a face full of feeling and tenderness, and a voice full of music. Her vivacity, wit and eloquence made her captivate everybody. At twenty she was married, through the management of her mother, to Baron de Stael, the Swedish Minister, a man older than herself, and with little of sympathy between them. For a warm-hearted, animated girl, such a cold marriage could bring little happiness, even though he was a noble.

She wrote rapidly, much as she talked. Through all those dreadful days of the Revolution, when Louis XVI. perished by the guillotine and the Place de la Concorde was red with blood, Madam de Stael took an active part. Her home was called "The camp of the Revolution." Her pen was ever busy, and her influence made and unmade Ministers. At last she sought refuge in England, and there her praise was on the lips of all. She was dazzling as she was solid, generous, a good listener, though a great talker, and had much tact, but was not always discreet. She incurred the hatred of Bonaparte by her frankness and was exiled by him. She traveled in Germany and afterwards in Italy where she wrote "Corinne," one of the most impassioned and brilliant of novels. She spent two years in writing her great history of Germany, after four years of preparation for it. By Napoleon's order the 10,000 copies pub-

lished in France, were destroyed, and she herself, who had returned to her beloved Paris, was banished again to Coppet, on Lake Geneva.

Nine years after the death of her husband, M. de Rocca, almost dying of wounds received in the Peninsula War, met her and loved her. He was 27; she 45.

"I shall love her so much that she will marry me in the end," he said.

"She is old enough to be your mother," remarked a friend.

"I am glad you have given me another reason for loving her," was the reply.

Her pity and his love conquered, and she married him secretly the following year. In 1814, when Napoleon abdicated, she returned to Paris. When he returned from Elba, he sent her word to come back, "for her presence was required in Paris for constitutional ideas," but she feared his friendship. Six years after her marriage, she died in Italy, and her husband, who idolized her, six months later. All her life she had believed in and longed for a marriage of love, and who has the right to censure, though she was older than the man in whose love she found peace? In a quiet enclosure at Coppet, her grave and her father's are side by side, covered with myrtle. Napoleon finally learned how to bear exile, as well as those to whom he doomed it, in his days of prosperity.

GEORGE SAND (1804–1876),

(Baroness Dudevant), the daughter of a brilliant soldier in France, was herself a most brilliant woman. Early married, to please her family, to a man of no sympathy with her, a marriage like too many all over the world, for social position rather than for love, they separated after four years. She attempted to support herself by painting and then by writing. Her "Indiana" and "Consuelo" made her immediately famous. She was a great woman, whose life was not above reproach, whose mind made her plain face attractive, and whose power, whether in the cause of the Red Republicans, or in social life, was very great.

FELICIA HEMANS (1794–1835),

Born in Liverpool, began to write poetry before she was ten years old, encouraged by her mother. Her first book was so harshly criticised that she became ill. She had not learned that the only criticism worth the name, is that which is given so kindly, that, though it may wound, it heals also by its sympathy and humanity. When eighteen, a lovely and enthusiastic girl, she married Captain Hemans, who, at the end of six years, left her with five children to support, while he betook himself permanently to Italy for his health, probably because her refined tastes were not congenial to him. Life,

with its ever increasing fame, was one of hard work for the gentle woman. A little time before her death, when she was about 40, she wrote to a friend: "It has ever been one of my regrets, that the constant necessity of providing sums of money to meet the exigencies of the boys' education, has obliged me to waste my mind in what I consider mere desultory effusions. My wish ever was to concentrate all my mental energy on the production of some more noble and complete work. I have always hitherto written as if in the breathing-times of storms and billows." Some of her poems, like "The Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers, "Cassibianca," "Bernardo del Carpio," and "He Never Smiled Again," will never die out of the people's heart. Jeffrey said of her poetry: "It is sweet, elegant and tender."

HARRIET MARTINEAU (1802–1876),

born in Norwich, was one of the ablest women England has ever known. While her brother James was enjoying college life, she would rise at five o'clock in the morning and study secretly in her room, because for a woman to be a blue-stocking was a reproach. At nineteen she wrote her first article. Her lover and father both died, and she was left without means. She sold a ball-dress for fifteen dollars, reviewed books for seventy-five dollars a year, often working till three o'clock in the morning, and doing fancy sewing all day to earn her bread. Becoming interested in the poor, she planned a series of books on Political Economy, and went to London to find a publisher. Day after day she walked the streets, having no money for omnibus fares, till she staggered from faintness and weariness. At last, on starvation terms, she could bring out the book if she would do the selling. She wrote a friend who sent her the price of a book, telling her it was for charity. She immediately returned the money. The first book was issued, and lo! she had become famous. Lord Brougham at once called upon her, as well as other famous people. She now worked early and late, and in two years and a half she wrote nearly thirty volumes of the series.

At thirty-five she visited America, and aided us in our anti-slavery settlement. At fifty she became one of the editors of the *London Daily News*, writing for it 1,600 "leaders" on the Corn Laws, Politics, British India, etc. Guizot, Minister of Public Instruction in France, said: "Miss Martineau is the only instance on record of a woman's having substantially affected legislation, otherwise than through some clever man." She wrote several volumes of travel and history, and died beloved and honored the world over, at Ambleside, in a lovely vine-covered home, at the age of seventy-four. Boston has just honored her memory by a statue, designed and modeled by Miss Annie Whitney. For breadth

of mind, and strength of intellect, she ranks with Mrs. Browning and George Eliot.

CHARLOTTE BRONTE (1816-1855),

Motherless, her only brilliant brother a drunkard, her father cold and unsympathetic, wrote in the plain, comfortless old town of Haworth, one of the great novels of the world, "Jane Eyre." Her literary experience is the old story of struggle. She and her two sisters used the names of men in writing, with the belief that a woman's work would not be fairly criticised. They published a volume of poems with the money they had earned, and it was a failure. Charlotte offered "The Professor" to several firms and all declined it. "Jane Eyre" was cut to pieces by the critics, but the public grew wild over it. The success came too late to save the hard-worked teachers. Emily, author of "Wuthering Heights," died at 29, Annie at 27, and Charlotte, after being married for a few months to her father's assistant, Rev. Arthur Nicholls, died at the age of 32. Her last words, as she rallied from delirium, and looked at her husband, were: "Oh, I am not going to die, am I. He will not separate us. We have been so happy." Thousands in both hemispheres wept when Charlotte Bronte was laid to rest. A blind girl walked four miles that she might hear the last sad words: "Earth to earth, ashes to ashes, dust to dust." I visited some of the plain houses at Haworth to learn of this gifted woman. The people said: "Charlotte would talk with all the country folks, sympathize with them, and listen to their troubles. She did not laugh much, but was very gentle and kind."

ELIZABETH BARRETT BROWNING (1809-1861),

Stands out among women poets almost unapproached—alone. She was the daughter of a wealthy London gentleman. At ten she wrote verses, which were published when she was fifteen. Her education was such as a woman rarely receives. As a rule, little can be expected from women who are not as highly educated as men. Her acquaintance with Greek literature was very wide. She read Hebrew; and in her Hebrew Bible, in her husband's library, one may see her notes on the margin, written in her own delicate hand-writing. In 1833 she published a translation of "Æschylus." About this time her brother was drowned, while on a sailing excursion, within sight of her window, which was a great shock to her. For seven years after this she lived in the greatest privacy in London, at times so feeble that life seemed extinct. Unable to sit up, she wrote "Lady Geraldine's Courtship" in twelve hours. In this poem Miss Barrett spoke of Robert Browning thus:

> "Or, from Browning some pomegranate which, if cut deep down the middle,
> Showed a heart within, blood-tinctured, of a veined humanity!"

Greatly pleased, he sought her acquaintance to thank her, and it resulted in their marriage in 1846, she still an invalid. Perhaps no truer love-life has ever been lived than by these two gifted persons, till her death, fifteen years after in Florence, where she lies buried. Her "Sonnets from the Portuguese," tell her own heart-history, and are among the most exquisite love-poems in any language. Her only child, Robert, is now a painter and sculptor. Her "Aurora Leigh" is a novel in blank verse. Her "Cry of the Children," "He Giveth his Beloved Sleep," and some other poems will last while the English language is spoken. Her last words were, as she lay dying of consumption: "It is beautiful," as she seemed to gaze into the world beyond. Her chief characteristic in conversation was earnestness, and her interest in others, rather than in herself, made her loved by all who knew her. "Books and humanity, great deeds, and, above all, politics, which include all the grand questions of the day, were foremost in her thoughts, and, therefore, oftenest on her lips." This is the type of women the world most needs; educated, interested not in trifling social questions, but in great ones; gentle, noble; and year by year we have more such women in all Christian lands.

GEORGE ELIOT (1819–1880),

Was the daughter of a poor clergyman, but adopted by a wealthy one. Herbert Spencer was her tutor and friend. She mastered German, French and Italian, was a skilled musician and a student of art and metaphysics. She was one of the editors of the *Westminster Review*, a position filled only by the ablest. "Adam Bede," "Romola, "The Mill on the Floss," "Middlemarch," "Daniel Deronda," are all household words. She has no superior in fiction among men or women, and probably no equal. After the death of George Henry Lewes, a man of fine intellect, with whom she lived thirty-two years, she married Mr. Cross, a man twenty years younger than herself, but whose devotion to her made her closing days most happy. She was a plain faced woman, with low sweet voice and remarkable powers of conversation. She is buried at Highgate Cemetery, London. Matilda Blind's "Life of George Eliot," among the Famous Women Series, should be read for its picture of a truly great woman.

FRANCES POWER COBBE (1822),

Now that George Eliot is dead, T. W. Higginson says, is the leading woman in England in mind. Her "Duties of Women" has had a large sale in America. Her essays on politics, religion, vivisection and social subjects, show broad culture and profound thought. Her "Peak of Darien" passed through seven

editions in a few weeks. Like all others who succeed, she is an untiring worker, having little time for social life.

JEAN INGELOW—CHRISTINA ROSSETTI, (BOTH BORN ABOUT 1830).

The former, the daughter of Mr. William Ingelow, late of Suffolk, lives in London with her two unmarried brothers. Fond of nature, refined in taste, she is yet most common sense and practical. Her "Tales of Orris," published in 1860; her "Story of Doom," in 1867; "Mopsa the Fairy," in 1869; "Off the Skelligs," in 1873, and "Don John," have all had a wide reading. The "Songs of Seven," the "High Tide on the Coast of Lincolnshire," and "Divided," are especial favorites.

Miss Rossetti is the sister of Dante Gabriel Rossetti, the poet-artist, and daughter of the late well known Gabriel Rossetti, commentator on Dante, and Professor of Italian at King's College, London. She lives with her mother in the heart of London, as lovely as her poetry is elevated and strong. She, like Miss Ingelow has been much read in America, and should be still more widely. Her "Goblin Market" was published in 1862; the "Prince's Progress," in 1866, and four or five other books in succeeding years.

MISS MULOCH (1826)—MRS. OLIPHANT (ABOUT 1818)—MISS YONGE (1823).

The former published her first novel, "The Ogilvie's," in 1849, and since then has written about thirty others, of which "John Halifax, Gentleman," is the most liked. In 1865 she married Mr. George L. Craik, a partner in the publishing house of Macmillan, and lives a happy and useful life, in her beautiful home in Kent.

Mrs. Oliphant is of Scotch parentage, and was born at Liverpool. Her first novel, in 1849, "Margaret Maitland," which was successful, has been followed by one or two each year. Her "Makers of Florence," "Dante," "Giotto" and "Savonorola," in 1876, is very valuable. She is one of the best, as she is also one of the most voluminous novel writers in England.

Miss Charlotte Yonge is a most industrious worker, and an earnest Christian woman. It is said that she gave $10,000, the profits of "Daisy Chain," to build a Missionary College at Auckland, New Zealand, and devoted a good portion of the proceeds of the "Heir of Redclyffe" to fitting out the missionary schooner *Southern Cross* for the use of Bishop Selwyn. Her Young Folks' Histories of England, France, Greece, Rome and Germany, are among the best books which parents can buy for their children.

Miss Helen Zimmern is a young lady, very bright and earnest, the author of the Life of Schopenhauer, of Lessing, of Miss Edgeworth, and the Epic of

Firdusi. She lives in London. Mrs. Cashel Hoey, Mrs. Richmond-Ritchie (Miss Thackery) and Mrs. Ross-Church (Florence Marryatt), Mrs. Brassy, and others, are well known.

AMERICAN WOMEN.

MARGARET FULLER (1810–1850),

Was one of the grandest women of the century. Kate Sanborn calls her, in a book published by Worthington & Co., Hartford, Conn., "Our Famous Women," a delightful volume to every man as well as woman, "a teacher, a rare talker; a critic, essayist and editor; a reformer, pioneer, philanthropist; and, best of all, a loving, true-hearted woman." She taught Latin and French in Bronson Alcott's school, translated several works from the German and Italian, wrote "Woman in the Nineteenth Century," was the warm friend of Emerson, edited the *Dial*, gave remarkable lectures in Boston, to which the most learned men came, and then became one of the reviewers of the New York *Tribune* under Horace Greeley. She went to Italy, married, when she was thirty-seven, a person much younger than herself, Marquis Ossoli, a noble man and a devoted husband. Both joined in the struggle for Italian liberty. They set sail May 17, 1850, for America, with their little boy, Angelo. The boat crossed safely, but struck on Fire Island beach, just off Long Island. Margaret was urged to leave the ship and be carried to the shore on a plank as the Captain's wife had been, but she refused to leave her husband. The steward took their child in his arms, but when they reached the shore both were dead, the boy's body still warm. Margaret was last seen in her white night dress, her hair falling about her shoulders, seated at the foot of the mast. Their bodies were never found, but her boy rests in Mount Auburn. Three months before she had written, "I shall embark, praying that it may not be my lot to be lost at sea, or if so, that Ossoli, Angelo, and I may go together, and that the anguish may be brief."

HARRIET BEECHER STOWE (1811),

Is the daughter of Rev. Lyman and Roxanna Beecher, both gifted; and the mother a rare and noble woman. She always had a passion for writing, and printed her articles before she had learned to write. Harriet taught school with her sister Catharine, and when twenty-five, married Professor Stowe, of Lane Seminary, Cincinnati. The Abolition question was before the country, and Mrs. Stowe's heart burned within her for the slave. Her first public

writing was "A New England Story," for which she gained a prize of fifty dollars. With several children about her and many pupils in her family, she wrote "Uncle Tom's Cabin," which was published in the *National Era*, a Washington newspaper, in 1852. Ten thousand copies were sold in a few days, and over three hundred thousand in a year. Eight presses were run night and day to supply the demand. It has been translated into nineteen different languages. She was abroad a year after, and was received with the greatest honors. She has written "Dred," "Agnes of Sorrento," "The Pearl of Orrs Island," "The Minister's Wooing," and others. She has two homes, one in Hartford, and one in Florida.

MARIA MITCHELL (1818),

Who, with Mary Somerville and Caroline Herschel, are the most famous women scientists of the world, is the daughter of a teacher, and was born in Nantucket, Mass., the third in a family of ten children. Fond of books, she read Rollin's Ancient History before she was ten years old. Leaving school at sixteen, she entered the library in her native town, at sixty dollars for the first year. For twenty years she worked here, and studied science. She discovered a telescopic comet, in 1847, for which she received a gold medal from the King of Denmark. Ten years later she visited England, and met many persons of distinction—Mrs. Somerville, Miss Bremer, Humboldt, John Herschel, and others. In 1866 Miss Mitchell was appointed Professor of Astronomy, in Vassar College, Poughkeepsie. In 1873 she again visited Europe, and was the guest of the Astronomer Struve in Pultowa. Miss Mitchell has contributed to various journals on the satellites of Jupiter, of Saturn, etc. She has always been deeply interested in woman's higher education.

JULIA WARD HOWE (1819),

Comes from a wealthy Newport family. She was a contributor, at seventeen, to some excellent journals, a good student in German and Italian literature, proficient in music, a person of strong mind and fine manners. Later she studied Greek and Latin, often translating from them. At twenty-four she was married to Dr. Samuel Howe, a man noted for his philanthropic work for the blind and deaf and dumb. They traveled much abroad, meeting many noted persons. Her first volume of poems, called "Passion Flowers," was published when she was thirty-five. She and her husband for a time edited the *Boston Commonwealth*, a strong anti-slavery paper. Mrs. Howe has written "A Trip to Cuba," "Words for the Hour," many theological and philosophic essays, delivered lectures, been an ardent advocate of woman suffrage,

and in every way helped the world to intellectual and higher living. Her "Battle Hymn of the Republic" will be longest remembered of all her work.

MARY A. LIVERMORE,

Born in Boston, is one of the ablest and best loved women in America. Whether she holds audiences spell-bound, or writes a book on "What shall we do with our Daughters?" she is always earnest, always interesting, and helpful. During the Civil War in the Sanitary Commission, in the soldier's camp, everywhere, she did noble work. Mrs. Livermore has preached in pulpits, lectured to crowded audiences, aided temperance, and woman in her efforts for the ballot, education, or a place to earn her living. She is the happy wife of a clergyman, and has one daughter. Her pleasant home is in Melrose, Mass.

LOUISA M. ALCOTT (1832),

Born in Germantown, Pennsylvania, is the daughter of Bronson Alcott, now of Concord, Massachusetts. At sixteen she wrote her first book, which was not published till she was twenty-two. She went to Boston, and by teaching, sewing and writing short stories for papers and magazines she earned her living. When she sent an article to the *Atlantic Monthly* it was returned by Mr. Fields with the advice that she stick to her teaching. She had not learned that a name is usually more than merit with an editor, because he makes his paper or magazine to sell. She now became a nurse in the hospitals in our Civil War, and wrote Hospital Sketches. She offered her short stories to a publisher, but he declined, though he asked her for a longer story for girls and "Little Women" was the result. This was written in two months, and made her, after her long struggles, famous. Her next book, "Little Men," had advance orders for 50,000 copies. Her books have been translated into several languages, and have brought her over $100,000. She is especially fond of reading Gœthe, Emerson, Shakespeare, Margaret Fuller, George Sand, and Whittier. She often used to write fourteen hours out of the twenty-four, scarcely tasting food till her work was done.

ELIZABETH STUART PHELPS (1844),

Born in Boston, is the oldest daughter of Professor Austin Phelps, of Andover Seminary, and of a gifted mother, now dead, who wrote "Sunny Side." She has been especially fond of rhetoric and philosophical studies. Her first printed story was in the *Youth's Companion*, when she was thirteen. She was two years in writing "The Gates Ajar." It has been translated into German, French, Dutch, and Italian, and 100,000 copies have been sold in this country.

Her books have a noble purpose; "Hedged In," "Avis," "Dr. Zay," etc. She has given lectures before the Boston University on Representative Modern Fiction. She is a lovely and refined woman, one of the best writers of our country.

FRANCES HODGSON BURNETT,

Born in England, came to this country, the whole family, very poor, after her father's death. She taught a country school in Tennessee, being paid for her services in potatoes, corn meal and bacon. Her first stories were written for Peterson, Godey and Frank Leslie, and finally for Harper and Scribner. For eleven years she has contributed to the latter. She is married to a physician in Washington, who, like herself, began poor, and has two boys. Her "Lasso 'o Lowries" and "Haworth," have made her famous. She has a happy temperament, and can but rejoice that the struggle with poverty is over.

FRANCES E. WILLARD,

While an author, is best known for her great temperance work, as the President of the National Woman's Temperance Union. She is a woman of remarkable power in speaking, of superior education, earnest Christianity, and unusual tact and grace. Her home was formerly in Oberlin, but now in Chicago, where she lives with her noble mother. Her last book, "Woman and Temperance," is bright and interesting.

Mary Clemmer, of Washington, is our most brilliant newspaper correspondent; Rose Terry Cooke, Mrs. Spofford and Mrs. Whitney have charmed by their noted stories; the Carey sisters, Mrs. Sigourney, Celia Thaxter, Lucy Larcom, Helen Hunt Jackson, of Colorado, have written much that will live in poetry; Mary L. Booth, editor of *Harper's Bazar*, a woman kind as she is gifted; Mary Mapes Dodge, editor of *St. Nicholas*, Ella Farman Pratt, editor of *Wide-Awake*, both noble and true women; Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony, and Lucy Stone, gifted and unselfish, bright Gail Hamilton, Lydia Maria Child, one of the greatest in anti-slavery times, are all worthy of lasting remembrance. A whole book would be needed to give our American women the credit due them.

WOMEN IN ART.

Early history has its noted women in art: Propersia di Rossi, of Bologna, whose romantic history Mrs. Hemans has immortalized; Elisabetta Sirani, painter, sculptor, and engraver on copper, herself called "a miracle of art," the honored of Popes and Princes, dying at twenty-six; Marietta Tintoretta,

who was invited to be the artist at the courts of emperors and kings, dying at thirty, leaving her father inconsolable ; and Sophonisba Lomellini, invited by Philip II. of Spain to Madrid, to paint his portrait and that of the Queen, concerning whom, though blind, Vandyck said he had received more instruction from a blind woman than from all his study of the old masters. Mrs. Ellet's "Woman Artists" is a book full of interest concerning these persons and many more.

The first woman artist in England was Susannah Hornebolt, daughter of the principal painter, who immediately preceded Hans Holbein, Gerard Hornebolt, a native of Ghent. Albrecht Durer said of her, in 1521: "She has made a colored drawing of our Saviour, for which I gave her a florin, (forty cents.) It is wonderful that a female should be able to do such work." Her brother Luke received a larger salary from King Henry VIII. than he ever gave to Holbein—$13.87 per month. Susannah married an English sculptor, named Whorstly, and lived many years in great honor and esteem with all the court.

Lavinia Bentinck, from Antwerp, was invited to England by Henry VIII., and received a higher salary than Holbein by thirty dollars a year. She excelled in miniatures. She was married to one of the court, and received distinguished consideration from both Queen Mary and Elizabeth. She seems able to have made a flattering likeness of the latter, whose vanity was as great as her mind was brilliant. As a present from Her Majesty, she received "oone casting bottell quilt."

ART UNDER CHARLES I. AND II.

Arts flourished under Charles I. To Vandyck and Anne Carlisle he gave ultramarine to the value of $2,500. Artemisia Genti leschi, from Rome, realized a splendid income from her work ; and although forty-five years old when she came to England, she was greatly admired and history says made many conquests. This may be possible, as George IV. said a woman never reaches her highest powers of fascination till she is forty. Guido was her instructor, and one of her warmest eulogizers. She was an intimate friend of Domenichino and of Guercino, who gave all his wealth to philanthropies, and when in England was the warm friend of Vandyck. Some of her works are in the Pitti Palace, at Florence, and some at Madrid, Spain.

Under Charles II., sensual and showy, the leading woman artist was Mary Beale, the daughter of a country clergyman. She painted in oil and water-colors, and drew in crayons. Sir Peter Lely, whose "Court Beauties" possess unique interest for travellers, greatly admired her work. She and her husband used every means to ascertain how Sir Peter obtained his soft flesh

tints; but he kept it a profound secret. Queen Henrietta Maria and the most famous Lords and Ladies sat to Mrs. Beale. Her husband, in a series of thirty small pocket-book almanacs, noted down whatever related to his business, and especially to his wife, always speaking of her as "my dearest heart." Of Lely he says: "Much more was to be observed from seeing him paint then than 'my heart' from her most careful marking could learn from his former painting." The next in interest is pretty

ANNE KILLEGREW,

born of noble family, in St. Martin's Lane, now given up to common shops and squalid children. Here lived many famous people—Mytens, Vandyck's predecessor, and Sir Kenelm Digby, one of the handsomest of men and most ardent picture-collectors of his time, who is said to have accidentally poisoned his loving wife by giving her a marvelous mixture to make her beautiful forever. Anne was maid of honor to the Duchess of York, and was a poet as well as a painter. She died at twenty-five, of small-pox, in the cloisters of Westminster Abbey. Dryden wrote an ode to her, which Dr. Johnson pronounced "the noblest our language has produced." Several of her historical paintings are extant. Of

MARIA VARELST (1680-1744),

the historical painter, the following story is told. At the theatre she sat next to six German gentlemen of high rank, who were so impressed with her beauty and manner that they expressed great admiration for her among each other. The young lady spake to them in German, saying that such extravagant praise in the presence of a lady was no real compliment. One of the party immediately repeated what he had said in Latin. She replied, in the same tongue, "that it was unjust to endeavor to deprive the fair sex of the knowledge of that tongue which was the vehicle of true learning." The gentlemen begged to call upon her. Each sat for his portrait, and she was thus brought into great prominence.

ELIZABETH BLACKWELL (DIED, 1774.)

George II., who hated "Bainting and Boetry," and who adored his wife, though the kingdom made fun of her, had two daughters, Mary and Caroline, skilled in portrait painting. Elizabeth Blackwell and Mary Delany come next. The former, her husband unjustly thrown into prison for debt, found herself obliged to support their little family. She could draw flowers well; so she at once made her home beside the Garden of Medicinal Plants, in Chelsea. She made the drawings and engraved them on copper, and, when printed, colored

them herself. Her husband wrote the Latin names of the plants and a brief description. The first volume contained 250 plates. Many persons of rank visited her, hearing of her fame, and the College of Physicians gave her a handsome testimonial. The second volume of 250 plates, followed in two years, and Dr. Pultney said: "For the most complete set of medicinal plants we are indebted to the genius and industry of a lady." Meantime, her husband in prison, before she had obtained his release, had written a book on agriculture, which attracted the attention of the Swedish ambassador, who sent it to his court. Mr. Blackwell was sent for from Stockholm and lodged in the house of the Prime Minister. Having some knowledge of medicine, he cured the King of an illness and was appointed his physician. He sent for his wife to join him, when lo! he was arrested on suspicion of having been concerned in a plot to change the line of succession. He was put to the torture, and in his agony confessed complicity. He was executed in 1747, but on the scaffold solemnly protested his innocence.

MARY DELANY (1700–1788).

was one of the most brilliant women of her time, married first to disagreeable, intemperate Alexander Pendarves, much against her will, living a wretched life for several years, till his death; then, in love with Lord Baltimore, who married a wealthier lady; finally marrying Dr. Delany, upon whose love and life she became as thoroughly dependent as Maria Theresa upon Francis I, or Victoria upon Prince Albert, while Dr. Delany almost idolized his "pearl." He admired and encouraged her artistic abilities, like the husband of Mary Somerville, and his admiration was her inspiration. She painted almost constantly in oils and drew in crayons. Sir Joshua Reynolds said of one of her crayons that his eyes would not let him believe that it was a crayon till he removed the glass and saw how carefully it was wrought. Her copy of Raphael's "Holy Family" was greatly admired. Her splendid tortoise-shell cat, which the London street-boys killed, she painted playing with a basket of flowers, with the words: "Kitty Trucidata, 15th December, 1761, *ætat five mense.*" Her shell-work, especially the ceiling of her husband's (the Dean's) chapel, done in cards and shells in imitation of stucco; her embroideries of every description; her marvelous imitations of flowers in paper, done in her old age, nearly 1,100 varieties, are most interesting. A mere list of her paintings would fill many pages. Edmund Burke called her a *truly great* woman of fashion. She was the intimate friend of kings and queens, and probably the most admired woman of her time. The king presented her a house at Windsor, with $1,500 yearly, in order that she might be near royalty and visit them. Her great charm was

her naturalness, cheerfulness, and interest in everybody about her. She had a heart to take in the world, and that in turn made her its idol.

Frances Reynolds would have won greater fame, though her abilities were greatly admired by Dr. Johnson, if her brother, Sir Joshua, fond of show and not appreciative of the talents of others, had given her that sympathy which she deserved. He always made fun of her work and never would aid her in the slightest degree. Indeed, she was obliged to work almost in secret, so angered was he at it. She was one of that delightful circle, which gathered around Dr. Johnson, Fanny Burney, (the author of "Evalina,") Hannah More, Goldsmith and the like. She painted the "Old Doctor and his Wife," Miss More, and many others. Sir Joshua, at his death, left her the interest of $12,500; but he might well have given her a trifle more love in his life. What a different brother from what Charles Lamb was to his sister Mary! Dr. Johnson once said: "I never knew but one mind which would bear a microscopical examination, and that is dear Miss Reynolds, and hers is very near to purity itself."

ANGELINA KAUFFMAN (1741–1807).

The only child of Joseph Kauffman, born near Lake Constance. At nine years of age, she made wonderful pastel pictures. Removing to Lombardy, it is asserted that her father dressed her in boy's clothing and smuggled her into the Academy, that she might be improved in drawing. At eleven she went to Como, where the charming scenery had a great impression upon the young girl. No one who wishes to grow in taste and art can afford to live away from nature's best work. The Bishop of Como became interested in her and asked her to paint his portrait. This was well done in crayon, and soon the wealthy patronized her.

When she went to Milan, to study the great masters, the Duke of Modena was attracted by her beauty and devotion to her work. He introduced her to the Duchess of Massa Carrara, whose portrait she painted, as also that of the Austrian Governor and soon those of many of the nobility. When all seemed at its brightest, her mother, one of the best of women died. Her father, broken-hearted, accepted the offer to decorate the church of his native town, and Angelica joined him in the frescoing. After much hard work, they returned to Milan. The constant work had worn on the delicate girl. She gave herself no time for rest. When not painting, she was making chalk and crayon drawings, mastering the harpsichord, or lost in the pages of French, German, or Italian. For a time she thought of becoming a singer, but finally gave herself wholly to art. After this she went to Florence, where she worked from sunrise to sunset, and in the evening at her crayons. In Rome,

with her youth, beauty, fascinating manners, and varied reading, she gained a wide circle of friends. Her face was a Greek oval, her complexion fresh and clear, her eyes deep blue, her mouth pretty and always smiling. She was accused of being a coquette, and quite likely was such.

For three months she painted in the Royal Gallery at Naples, and then returned to Rome, to study the works of Raphael and Michael Angelo. From thence she went to Bologna and beautiful Venice. Here she met Lady Wentworth, who took her to London, where she was introduced at once to the highest circles. Sir Joshua Reynolds had the greatest admiration for her, and, indeed, was said to have offered her his hand and heart. The whole world of art and letters united in her praise. Often she found laudatory verses pinned on her canvas. The great people of the land crowded her studio for sittings. She lived in Golden Square, now a rather dilapidated place back of Regent street, and was called the most fascinating woman in England. Sir Joshua painted her as "Design Listening to Poetry," and she, in turn, painted him. She was the pet of Buckingham House and Windsor Castle.

In the midst of all this unlimited attention, a man calling himself the Swedish Count, Frederic de Horn, with fine manners and handsome person, offered himself to Angelica. He represented that he was calumniated by his enemies, and that the Swedish Government was about to demand his person. He assured her, if she were his wife, she could intercede with the queen and save him. She blindly consented to the marriage, privately. At last, she confessed it to her father, who took steps at once to see if the man were true, and found that he was the vilest imposter. He had a young wife already in Germany, and would have been condemned to a felon's death if Angelica had been willing. She said: "He has betrayed me, but God will judge him."

She received several offers of marriage after this; but would accept no one. Years after, when her father, to whom she was deeply devoted, was about to die, he prevailed upon her to marry a friend of his, Antonio Zucchi, thirteen years her senior, with whom she went to Rome and there died. He was a man of ability and, perhaps, made her life happy. At her burial one hundred priests accompanied the coffin, the pall being held by four young girls, dressed in white, the four tassels held by four members of the Academy. Two of her pictures were carried in triumph immediately after her coffin. Then followed a grand procession of illustrious persons, each bearing a lighted taper.

Mary Moser was the only other lady who has ever been a member of the Royal Academy at London. Her father, George Moser, was one of the original founders and during his life its keeper. She was greatly admired by Queen

Charlotte, and decorated a room at Frogmore for $4,500. She was especially celebrated as a flower and historical painter.

ELIZABETH LE BRUN (1755–1842),

Daughter of a skillful portrait painter in Paris, and aided by the celebrated Vernet, was early obliged to support her mother, who was very extravagant. At her request, she married a painter and picture dealer, because the mother supposed him very rich, but he proved a gambler, and an immoral man. He compelled her to give him the money she received for her paintings, and while he lived in luxury on her earnings on the first floor, she had to live in plain rooms on the second. Once, when she received $2,500 for the portrait of a prince, her husband took all the money, giving her two gold dollars to spend for herself! Why did she not obtain a divorce? France is the country where divorce is not permitted, but it is questionable whether such restriction always produces good results. Her house was the center of the talent of Paris. When the Revolution came, she returned to Italy, where, at Bologna, she was made a member of the Academy, as she had been at Paris, and a deputation of Roman artists went out to welcome her to the Eternal City. The world does not always help a woman to obtain distinction; but when she has once gained it, it is willing to do her honor. Parma elected her a member of its Academy; Berlin and St. Petersburg the same. At Coppet she painted Madam de Stael, and this won her additional fame. When eighty years old she painted with as much energy and vigor as ever. In the Louvre is an exquisite picture of herself, painted in early life. She outlived her husband twenty-nine years, and was wedded to her art.

ROSA BONHEUR (1822),

Born at Bordeaux; placed with a seamstress to earn her living with a needle, growing ill with the hated task; sent to school, where her calico dress, her coarse shoes, iron spoon, and tin mug, in contrast with the silks and silver of the rich girls, nearly crushed her spirit; taken, at last, into her father's studio, where she drew and modeled from morning till night, with the greatest enthusiasm; working at the Louvre, where the director said, "I have never seen an example of such affection and such ardor for work;" too poor to procure models, going daily into the country, on foot, in search of picturesque views and animals, and returning, after a tramp of a dozen miles, wet and hungry; visiting the *abbattoirs* of Paris, and sitting on a bundle of hay while she worked from morning till night, often forgetting the bit of bread which she had brought in her pocket; filling her room, in the sixth story, with birds

and a beautiful sheep, which her artist brother carried daily on his back to graze in an adjoining grass-plot; winning her first fame in the Fine Arts Exhibition, when she was nineteen years of age, and her gold medal at twenty-seven, for her "Cantal Oxen;" receiving her prize from the Government, before a distinguished audience, is an illustration of woman's perseverance and ability.

Her father died soon after, rejoicing in the world-wide fame of his daughter. Her "Horse Fair," in 1853, the preparatory studies for which occupied her for eighteen months, added greatly to her popularity. From this she was entitled to the Cross of the Legion of Honor; but the Emperor refused to give it to her, because she was a woman! She has over a thousand sketches in her portfolio, for which she might receive large sums of money; but she will not part with them. She is an indefatigable worker, rising at six and working till dusk. When Paris was beseiged, in 1870, the Crown Prince of Prussia ordered that her house and studio, at Fountainbleau, be religiously respected.

She is small in person, has dark brown hair and hazel eyes, and a frank, kind manner. She rarely goes into company, because life is too full to her for party-going. A lady, who is a widow, lives with her, and cares for the home. She determined never to marry, because she wishedto be a great artist; and this she has accomplished. She is now very ill, and it is feared she may not return to health.

HARRIET HOSMER (1831)

Has made America proud of her by her "Zenobia," "Œnone," "Puck," and various other works. Her studio, in Rome, not far from the beautiful Prencian Hill, is one of the most charming remembrances to me of that grand old city. Two immense rooms contain the worker and her marbles. Some are completed, like the "Beatrice Cenci," made a reality after one sees the pitiful dungeon where she slept and where her food was put through the grating. This is an exquisite reclining figure, beautiful in face as any dream of a poet. Many pieces of statuary are only half wrought out of the marble. An arm is finished, or a head, and you can see it grow under the workman's hand. Born at Watertown, Massachusetts, she is the only child of a physician, who allowed her to be a true child of nature—swimming, rowing, and climbing, as she pleased. She went to St. Louis to study under Dr. McDowell, Professor of Anatomy in the Medical College, because the Boston Medical School would not admit a woman. At twenty-one after her first work in marble, "Hesper," she went to Rome and became the pupil of Mr. Gibson, a resident there for thirty-four years. In three years her father lost his property. She immediately sold her

saddle-horse, curtailed all expenses, and instead of returning to America, set to work to earn her living. Her "Puck" was ordered again and again by the Prince of Wales and others. He also offered a large price for "Zenobia," but she said it must go to America, where it was purchased by W. Griswold, Esq., of New York. Miss Hosmer has gained her place, only by the most heroic labor and devotion to her art. She is careful in detail. When she executed her "Medusa," the hair of which changes into serpents, she obtained a snake, gave him chloroform, kept him in the plaster three hours and a half, and when he came out alive and well, she sent him back to the country, to his old haunts. She spends much of her time now in England. She has been compared to Sabina von Steinbach, whose sculptured groups, in the Strasburg Cathedral, have been admired for centuries.

ELIZABETH THOMPSON BUTLER

stands first in England, and no woman artist has won greater fame since the days of Angelica Kauffman. To paint a military picture requires especial talent, as well as hard work, in most trying positions. Rosa Bonheur could only obtain her knowledge of animals by wearing men's clothing in the markets and cattle fairs; and Miss Thompson could get her smoke and stain of battle only by going where they were. For her "Twenty-eighth Regiment at Quatre Bras," she tested by the aid of gunpowder the look of men's faces through smoke, and repaired frequently to the Knights Bridge Barracks, where she would kneel to "receive" the riding-master and mounted sergeant of the Blues, to see how men felt when they were receiving cavalry. The fallen horse was drawn from a Russian, one belonging to a circus, the only one which could be trusted to remain for a sufficient time in that position. The "tall rye" was sought for diligently, and, at last, found at Henly-on-Thames. She has recently received a commission from the Queen to paint a picture connected with the Zulu War, and an incident in the Afghan campaign.

In 1866 she was a student at the South Kensington Art School, and after this studied in Italy, under Giuseppe Bellucis, of Florence, a fellow student of Sir Frederick Leighton. Although he succumbed to the hot weather in summer, she was always ready for her daily task. Her first picture in Rome received "favorable mention" in 1870. This she sent to the Royal Academy, and it was returned; the second failed; the third was hung so high as not to be seen; and the fourth, "The Roll-Call," in 1874, made her famous. Policemen were stationed to regulate the crowd. The picture was sent to Windsor for the Queen to look at, and the whole artistic world seemed wild over it. Miss Thompson is a most indefatigable worker, sparing no pains for the most min-

ute details. She is married to Major W. F. Butler, C. B., a distinguished officer and fine speaker. Her mother has recently finished a large historical picture, "Christ Appearing in the Garden to Mary Magdalen," destined for the Academy.

CLARA MONTALBA.

is one of the most distinguished landscape painters. She studied four years under M. Eugene Isabey, commander of the Legion of Honor in Paris. She has painted for months in Normandy, but perhaps her best work is of Venice. That old city, rich in all that is romantic and beautiful, has been her chief inspiration ; and no wonder, for no one ever visits it but remembers its gondolas, San Marco by moonlight, and its historic old palaces, like a tender poem or an exquisite picture.

Mrs. Helen Allingham, born in 1848, wife of the editor of *Frazer's Magazine*, is noted especially in water colors. Mr. Ruskin speaks of her pictures, "Young Customers" (two children in a village toy-shop), as "a thing which, I believe, Gainsborough would have given one of his own pictures for—old-fashioned as red tipped daisies and more precious than rubies." She has drawn much on wood for *Once a Week*, Cassell's publications, and *Cornhill Magazine*, and was for some time on the regular staff of the *Graphic*. In 1875 she was elected an Associate of the Society of Painters in Water Colors.

Mrs. Louisa Joplin, also famous in water colors, married at seventeen to the private secretary of Baron Nathaniel de Rothschild, whose wife discovered Mrs. Joplin's talent, began to study at four-and-twenty, and, her husband's death following soon after, she supported herself and children by her work. Her pictures are many and deservedly popular. She is now married to Mr. Joplin, himself famous in the same line.

The works of Elizabeth Murray are as well known in America, perhaps, as in England. Her father was painter extraordinary to George IV., and president of the Society of British Artists. The daughter was taken to Rome, where she attracted the attention of Horace Vernet, director of the French Academy in Rome. In the old town of Cambray, France, while engaged in sketching the gate, she was arrested and carried to prison, as the guard supposed she was sketching the fortifications. She was married, some years later, to Henry John Murray, British Consul to Gibraltar. From here they went to Tangiers, thence to Constantinople, Greece, and America. She counts friends among the crowned heads of many nations, and has won a place for herself by pen and brush.

Mrs. Helen C. Angell, Flower Painter in Ordinary to Her Majesty, born in 1847, is especially noted in this work. William Hunt spoke of her as his only successor. Her truth to nature, brilliancy, and delicacy are everywhere praised. She is an Associate Exhibitor at the Royal Society of Painters in Water Colors, there being only four other ladies—Mrs. Allingham, Miss Montalba, Miss Gillies and Miss Harrison.

Kate Greenway, whose inimitable books for children are sold everywhere, has gained already an international reputation. She is the daughter of a London merchant, and devoted to her work.

Mrs. Alma Tadema, born in 1852, her first important picture, a study of daffodils, reflected in a mirror that also reflects the painter, much admired in the Paris Salon in 1872, is also an annual exhibitor at the Royal Academy.

Mrs. Staples is on the staff of the *Graphic;* Georgiana Bowers designs nearly all the hunting scenes for *Punch;* Hannah Barlow sketches for the *Doulton Ware;* making thousands without any previous outline, and never reproducing them.

Eliza Greatorex is a New York artist; some of her best known drawings having been photographed and published in a volume called "*Old New York.*" Fidelia Bridges is well know for her water colors Ellen D. Hale, of Boston, daughter of Rev. Edward Everett Hale, has done some excellent work, while his sister, Sarah Clarke, in Rome, has prepared some fine drawings for her book on Dante. Anna M. Lea, now in London, has a portrait of James Russell Lowell in the Royal Academy exhibition. She has already won a deserved reputation. Emma Stebbins, of New York, has painted in oil and worked successfully in marble. May Alcott Neriker, the sister of Louise Alcott, was winning honors in Rome, when she died, leaving her only child, an infant, to the loving care of her sister. Mary Hallock Foote, Rosina Emmett, Mary E. Lathbury, L. B. Humphrey, and many more, are showing great talent in illustrating books. Emily Sartain, of Philadelphia, is an eminent engraver on steel, as well as painter in oil. Her pictures, like those of Miss Elizabeth Gardiner, who has lived in Paris for fifteen years, are welcome to the Paris Salon.

EDMONIA LEWIS

Exhibited Cleopatra at the Centennial Exposition, and it was greatly admired. She is a colored girl, once very poor, sitting on the steps of the City Hall, at Boston, gaining inspiration from the statues of Washington and Webster. Now she is famous and honored.

VINNIE REAM HOXIE

Went from the West, a poor girl, to Washington, but with a brave heart. General Sherman was her warm friend, and helped her in her struggles to success. Her statue of Lincoln is in the Capitol at Washington, and her Admiral Farragut stands in a public square over against her own lovely home. The studio of

CAROLINE RANSOM,

Whose painting of General Thomas has won great admiration is one of the charming places of Washington.

ANNA WHITNEY,

Of Boston, won fame by her Samuel Adams, now on a public square in that city, and by her recent statue of Harriet Martineau. She is a poet as well as artist, and brings to her work both great labor and talent.

HEROIC WOMEN.

Women have never been wanting in bravery or devotion to duty. The Spartan mother gave her son a shield as he went into battle, bidding him return *with* it or *upon* it. In early times women were often at the head of armies, fighting with valor and skill, and winning many victories.

JOAN of ARC (1412-1431),

was born in the village of Domremi, and worked as a servant in a small tavern. All France was stirred by the seige of Orleans, which Henry VI. of England, through his uncle, the Duke of Bedford, was endeavoring to capture. He had been crowned King of England and France, while Charles VII. believed himself the rightful heir to France, and with his courtiers about him, was timidly planning the best thing to do. Joan had determined to save her king. The people at first thought her crazy, or "out of her sphere," but she would take no refusal. She sought the King, who finally gave her the command of his army. A suit of armor was made for her, and she placed herself at the head of 10,000 men. The people were wild with enthusiasm as she rode before them, her long hair falling over her shoulders, and her soldier's bonnet adorned with white feathers, and her consecrated banner waving above her. In a few days the English were defeated with 6,000 men killed. Returning triumphant, she declared that Charles must be crowned at Rheims. Three months afterwards this was done in the midst of great rejoicing. She desired now to return to humble life, but was urged to remain to drive the

English from France. In a subsequent battle she was taken prisoner, and after four months, the University of Paris uniting in the decision, she was burned in the market place at Rouen on the charge of heresy. Michelet says ten thousand wept to see her die. Charles VII. was either too weak or too thankless to save her. She was only 21, one of the purest and noblest of women. Her last word, as her head sank on her breast, was "Jesus." "We are lost," said an English soldier, "for we have burned a saint."

In the time of the French Revolution, Renee Borderean, commonly called Langevin, was engaged in over 200 battles and skirmishes. She usually fought on horseback. Napoleon was so afraid of her that he offered $8,000,000 for her head. She was betrayed into the hands of her enemies, and thrown by the Emperor into a dungeon. She was at last set free on the restoration of Louis XVIII., for whom she had fought so bravely. Mary Shelienck, who displayed great bravery at the battle of Austerlitz, in male attire, was made Lieutenant by Napoleon, and received the decoration of the Legion of Honor. At her death, in 1847, the Legion of Honor, belonging to the garrison, attended, with a great concourse of people.

The keeper of the house of Charlottesburg, where Emperor William's mother lies buried, is a woman who was a brave soldier for years. So many women have been in battles that Ellen C. Clayton, a well known English writer, has written a two-volume book on "Female Warriors," giving hundreds of instances where women have shown valor.

THE MAID OF SARAGOSSA (1786–1826).

When the rest of Spain was at the feet of Napoleon, he sent Marshal Lefebvre to besiege Saragossa. Women of all ranks immediately formed into companies, and were the bravest of the brave. In white raiment, Angeline Zaragoza traversed the city, inspiring the troops; seizing a lighted match from the hand of a dying engineer and firing his cannon, crying "Death or Victory." When the people were dying of starvation the General in command said to her, "When asked by Lefebvre to surrender, what answer shall I send?"

"War to the knife!" was the reply.

For eleven days and nights the conflict was terrific. Angelina at the head, the Spaniards disputed possession of every street and almost every house, till the French, worn out, retreated. The brave woman was asked to name any reward she wished for saving the city. She asked only the surname of "Saragossa," and to retain the rank of an artillery soldier. Historians describe her as extremely lovely and gentle. The oft-repeated assertion that women cannot bear arms, has little weight in view of the facts of history.

CHARLOTTE CORDAY 1768–1793),

Was the daughter of a Norman nobleman. Well educated, she had the deepest love for Republican principles. When Murat and Robespierre showed themselves such blood-thirsty tyrants, after the fall of Louis XVI., she felt that there was no hope for France but to be rid of them. When she read in the paper that Murat had declared that 200,000 more heads must come off before the revolution would be a success, her decision was taken. She addressed a letter solic. iting an interview with him. She received no answer, and called in person. Being refused at the door, Murat overheard her, and bid her enter. She has some news of traitors, thought he, and as he turned aside, while in his bath, to write the names of those who shall fall by the guillotine, she plunged a knife into his heart. "*A moi, chere amie!*"—"Help, dear!" were his dying words. The room was soon filled, and she was hurried off to prison. As she died bravely, a young German shouted: "She is greater than Brutus!" He, too, was arrested and beheaded.

MADAME ROLAND (1754–1793),

Her maiden name Jean Marie Philipson. She was married when she was twenty-six to M. Roland, a man nearly twice her age, an author and later a member of the General Assembly of France. She shared all his labors, wrote most of his speeches and letters, and was in reality the head of the Girondists. Her house was the center for their plans. She says of her husband, in her memoires: "One misfortune was that he habituated himself not to think, not to write, but by me." Like thousands of others in those bloody days, she was arrested, imprisoned in the same room where Charlotte Corday had been, and taken to the scaffold in a white robe, comforting an old man who sat beside her in the cart. Passing a statue of Liberty, she said: "O, Liberty, what crimes are committed in thy name!" Her husband soon committed suicide, "finding it impossible to live in a world where such a crime was permitted." Thus died one of the most brilliant and bravest of the women of France.

Our own country has furnished noble instances. In our Revolutionary War, Moll Pitcher took the place of her dead husband at the battle of Monmouth, and so ably was the gun handled, that General Washington made her a lieutenant. She was afterwards known as Captain or Major Molly. Whittier has made brave old Barbara Frietchie known. One of the most noted of all is

CLARA BARTON,

who was a teacher in early life, then a devoted nurse in our Civil War, Lady Superintendent of the Ninth Army Corps, and often under fire in the hardest battles. She organized a "Bureau of Records of Missing Men in the Armies

of the United States," spending $15,000 in ascertaining as far as possible about the death and burial of soldiers, thus comforting many a stricken heart. She induced the Government to lay out cemetery grounds at Andersonville, placing head-boards to identify the graves. In the Franco-Prussian War she was in truth an angel of mercy, providing food for the starving and helping to lessen the horrors of the Commune. She held the position of superintendent of the Woman's Prison, at Sherborne, Mass., with great acceptance, but has resigned to devote all her time to the Red Cross Society, a grand organization by which, in time of war, those who wear this badge are free to go all over the world in their labors for the wounded.

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE (1819)

Is the daughter of a wealthy Englishman in the South of England. She is finely educated, speaks German, French and Italian as fluently as English, and has been an extensive traveler. At the great Lutheran hospital at Kaiserwerth, near the Rhine, under Pasteur Fliedner, Miss Nightingale studied the art of nursing. At the request of some of the highest in England she undertook the entire control of nursing the sick and wounded in the Crimean war. In 1854 she started with thirty-seven nurses. The work she accomplished reads like a romance. The men in the trenches spoke her name as though it were hallowed. One of them wrote: "Before she came there was such cussin' and swearin', and after that it was as holy as a church. She would speak to one and another, and nod and smile to as many more; but she couldn't do it to all, you know; we lay there by hundreds; but we could kiss her shadow as it fell, and lay our heads upon the pillow again, content." The prejudice from those in authority against women as nurses was at last overcome by her tact and success. On her return, the nation presented her with a large fund, which she devoted to the Nightingale Training School for Nurses at St. Thomas Hospital, London. The Sultan gave her a diamond bracelet, and Queen Victoria asked a visit of her for several days at Balmoral.

WOMEN IN THE PROFESSIONS.

IN MEDICINE.

The opposition at first to women entering the medical profession seems unaccountable, but fortunately there are very few physicians now, probably, who would oppose anything so unfair as not to give women an equal chance with themselves. For women to succeed in medicine is no new thing. The Iliad

and Odyssey both refer to women skilled in medicine. Anna Manzolini, the wife of a maker of anatomical models, soon surpassed him in skill, was appointed to the Chair of Anatomy in the Institute of Bologna, and from her reputation attracted students from all countries. Her models are the pride of the Anatomical Museum of Bologna. Maria della Donne held a chair in the University of Bologna, appointed by Napoleon Bonaparte. Dorothea Erxleben obtained her medical diploma at the University of Halle in 1734. She became eminent for her skill and learning, and was the mother of a distinguished naturalist and professor in the University of Gottingen. History proves that, as a rule, prominent men are born of educated women, with the best minds. Ordinary parentage usually gives ordinary descendants. Madame Bouvin (1733), of France, received her degree from the University of Marburg.

ELIZABETH BLACKWELL (1821)

Received the first medical degree ever conferred upon a woman in the United States in 1849. Born in England, her father, owing to financial losses, came to this country, and soon after, dying, left his wife and nine children penniless. Elizabeth and her sister Emily supported the family by teaching, until they could support themselves. The former applied to several medical schools for admission, but all were shocked at the indelicacy of her request save Castleton, Vt., and Geneva, N. Y. At the latter the question was referred to the young men, and to their honor, be it said, they unanimously decided in her favor. Going to Paris, she was urged by the best physicians to don a man's dress, as her case was hopeless because she was a woman. After months of delay she was admitted to the hospital. When she returned to New York, respectable boarding houses were closed against her because she was a doctor, and at the same time a woman! Her practice increased, and she soon founded the New York Dispensary for Women and Children, which, in ten years, relieved over 50,000 patients. Dr. Emily, her sister, graduated at the Cleveland College in 1854, and lives in New York where she has a large practice, and the best physicians meet her in consultation. The elder sister resides in London, honored for the work she has done for her sex.

ELIZABETH GARRETT ANDERSON (1837),

One of three remarkable sisters, of whom one is the wife of Postmaster General Fawcett, unable to obtain a medical degree in England, went to Paris, and was the first woman to graduate there after the five requisite examinations. She married Mr. Anderson in 1871, has been a member of the London School Board, and is universally respected.

MARY PUTNAM JACOBI,

of New York, obliged to go to Paris for her medical education, graduated with great honor in 1871. Competing with three hundred physicians in this country for the prize for a thesis, when it was awarded, and the name accompanying it opened, to the amazement of all it was that of a woman. She is an able speaker and valuable writer, and, with her husband, who is also a physician, has a large practice.

In Great Britain the struggles of Dr. Jex-Blake and four other ladies, at the University of Edinburgh, their mobbing by the students after being allowed by the professors to attend, the agitations in Parliament, and the victory at last, can be found in Dr. Chadwick's able article in the *International Review* for October, 1879. In the last ten years thousands of women have become physicians, many having a large and very lucrative practice. Russia, Sweden, Switzerland, and other nations, have opened their medical institutions to women. Dr. Sarah Stevenson, of Chicago, is the first woman admitted to the American Medical Association, in 1876. Cleveland has several women, successful in medical practice, of whom she may well be proud.

IN LAW.

As far back as the Thirteenth Century, says Madame Villari, of Italy, in the *International Review* for March and May, 1878, when there were at the celebrated University of Bologna no less than ten thousand students, two women were numbered among its most distinguished professors, Accorsa Accorso and Bettisia Gozzadini. The former filled the chair of Philosophy; the latter was made Doctor of Law in 1236, and gave public lectures to crowded and admiring audiences. In the Fourteenth Century, Novella, daughter of Giovanni d' Andrea, renowned as the best juris consult of his day, often took her father's place, but hidden behind a curtain, so that her beauty, it is said, might not distract her hearers. She was thoroughly versed in law. In England, Miss Orme has recently graduated from London University with honor. In America, Phebe Couzins, in St. Louis; Belva Lockwood, at Washington; Myra Bradwell, of Chicago, who has edited, for years, the *Legal News;* Ellen Foster, of Iowa, one of the ablest speakers in the country, among men or women, and many others have their hands full of work, both honorable and successful.

IN THE MINISTRY.

Since the days of Deborah, and Hannah, a few women have publicly preached the Gospel, and the number is constantly increasing. A God who is no respecter of persons will not ask whether people have been led to Christianity

by a man or woman. I have never seen a place too sacred for a noble wife or mother to stand, to win souls.

ELIZABETH FRY (1780–1844),

Early distinguished herself by her work among the poor. Twelve years after her marriage with Mr. Joseph Fry, she began the reformation of Newgate Prison. The wretched inmates, one hundred and twenty in one ward, slept on the floor, without even a mat for bedding. Everything was filthy and degrading. In a few years all this was changed, through the influence of this woman, rich and beautiful. Although she had a large family, she visited all the principal jails of Scotland, Holland, France and Prussia, forming libraries for prisoners, holding thousands of audiences by her eloquence as a Quaker preacher, and, at her death, the world mourned the "Female Howard," as she was called, like him devoting her whole life to inducing men and women to become Christians.

LUCRETIA MOTT (1793–1880),

One of the loveliest women ever in our country, was born, like Miss Mitchell, on the Island of Nantucket. Her manner was gentle and winning, and she never antagonized people. A student of her Bible, she felt that Paul's restrictions were spoken for the women of the time in which he lived, and that the beautiful words, "upon my servants and my handmaids I will pour out my spirit, and they shall prophesy," were meant for her, among others. She followed in the footsteps of Deborah, who judged Israel forty years. She once naively said that "St. Paul advised not to marry, but even a clergyman will marry twice or thrice." She reared six children, and was an inspiration to thousands.

She often preached to two thousand people. Once, in anti-slavery times, when the speakers were mobbed, she said to a lady, "Take this friend's arm; he will protect thee."

"But who will protect thee?" was the response.

"This gentleman," she said, touching the arm of a red-shirted ruffian in the crowd. And, proud to help, he took her to her home. That was tact, indeed. She, with others, was appointed a delegate to the World's Anti-Slavery Convention, at London, in 1840, and she who had labored for thirty years was refused a place because she was a woman! How the world has moved on since then! Sarah Smiley (it is said that she is now an Episcopalian) preaches to thankful congregations; Mrs. Van Cott, a Methodist, speaks to crowded houses; Louisa Baker, at Nantucket, presides over a Congregational church; Phebe Hanaford, the author of "Daughters of America," an admirable book, and several other very interesting volumes, has long been an ordained pasto

in a Universalist church, at Jersey City, N. J., exchanging pulpits with her son, who is a Congregational minister. She was the first woman who ever, as a regularly appointed chaplain, officiated in the Legislature of Connecticut, which she did in 1870 and 1872, several times in Senate and in House of Representatives; Rev. Celia Burleigh was the first woman ordained in the the Unitarian church.

WOMAN AS QUEEN.

ZENOBIA (300),

Queen of Palmyra, was as learned and brave as she was beautiful. She possessed, says Gibbon, in equal perfection, the Greek, Syriac and Egyptian languages. Odenathus, her husband, with her assistance, raised himself from a humble man to the dominion of the East. At his death she governed Palmyra, Syria, and the East, for five years. She administered the government with strict justice, economy and wisdom, and was idolized by her people. Aurelian turned his armies against the Queen of the East, and after severe battles she was defeated. When he returned in triumph to Rome, in the midst of his plunder, elephants, 1,600 gladiators, gold and other treasures, the beautiful Syrian Queen proudly walked in the procession in her royal robes, blazing with jewels, bound with chains of gold so heavy that two slaves supported them on either side, the populace shouting in exultation. He presented her with a villa near Rome, where she died.

LADY JANE GREY (1537–1554),

Was the most scholarly of any Queen. With the best of teachers, she mastered Latin and Greek, and acquired some proficiency in Arabic, Chaldee, French, Italian and Hebrew. At sixteen, she married Lord Guilford Dudley, son of the Duke of Northumberland, who influenced King Edward VI. to make the bride his suceessor, excluding his sisters Mary and Elizabeth. Five days after his death, the Duke insisted, much against her will, and she was crowned Queen in the Tower. Mary came at once to London, with 12,000 troops, and shortly after Lady Jane and her husband were condemned to death. She refused to see her husband, lest it would unman him, but wrote to him: "Adieu, my Guilford. Be a man—be firm at the last hour. Let me be proud of you." Guilford died like a hero, says Mrs. Jameson in her Celebrated Female Sovereigns, and Jane was proud of him. Mary offered to pardon her if she would become a Catholic, but she refused. Dressing herself in white, she proceeded to the scaffold, and after speaking earnestly to the people, and tying a handker-

chief about her eyes, she said to the hangman, who begged her forgiveness, "I pray thee dispatch me quickly." Feeling for the block, she said: "Where is it?" and then added: "Lord, into thy hands I commend my spirit," and the life of the beautiful girl of seventeen was finished.

CHRISTINA OF SWEDEN (1626-1689),

Was the only child of Gustavus Adolphus the Great, who was killed at Lutzen when she was six years old. Her father left orders that she should receive a "masculine education." At eighteen she read Greek, and spoke Latin, German and French. She had the greatest love of honor, never betrayed a secret, had contempt for the minds of women generally, and refused to give much time to personal adornment. She invited learned men to her court from every quarter of Europe. Descartes, the philosopher, was with the young Queen for two months, every morning at five o'clock. With many imperfections, she was still a great leader. Betrothed to her cousin, Charles Gustavus, she would not marry him, but said she would confer her crown upon him instead. In 1654, in her robes of State, she laid aside her crown forever, bidding her lover Charles take her chair, which he would not do in her presence. Many shed tears at her departure. She went to Paris, where her talents and learning were the wonder of the capital. She made vast collections of works of art and books, became a Romanist, and was buried at St. Peters.

MARIA THERESA (1717-1780,)

Was the daughter of Charles VI., Emperor of Germany. Carlisle says of her, "no woman, and hardly one man, is worth being named beside her as a sovereign ruler." Her favorite study was history and the languages. She restored peace to her distracted country, conquered several nations who made war upon her, and showed herself the ablest foe of Frederick the Great. At five each morning she rose to attend reports, despatches, and the hard work of statesmanship. One of the most powerful monarchs in Europe, not in any sense a figurehead, she carefully trained her large family, and was a most devoted wife. Her husband Francis, a good man, was neither her equal in valor nor power, but she never recovered from the sorrow occasioned by his death. The lives of the heart-broken Josephine and Marie Antoinette, dying by the guillotine, Madame de Maintenon, wife of Louis XIV., the beautiful Louisa of Prussia, the lovely Elizabeth of Hungary, the scholarly Elizabeth of England, and the womanly Victoria, whose life Grace Greenwood has just written, are all full of interest.

OFFICERS AND REPORT

OF

THE 1883-84 WORK

OF THE

CLEVELAND EDUCATIONAL BUREAU.

ORGANIZED BY THE BUSINESS MEN

FOR THEIR EMPLOYEES AND THE PEOPLE

MOTTO—"KNOW THYSELF."

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SECRETARY'S REPORT.

CLEVELAND, OHIO, Feb. 2nd, 1884.

Mr. President, and Members of the Cleveland Educational Bureau:

General John Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, on November 24th, opened the third annual series of winter entertainments by a very instructive lecture on "Industrial Education Abroad and at Home." This evening we close the course with a debate on the important question of Woman Suffrage. The phenominal success of the past two winters has again been repeated this year, thus demonstrating the need of this kind of work for the people, although many of our first patrons said they would never again submit to such crowding at the entrances. But when the doors were opened earlier, the great Tabernacle was filled by *half-past six*, hundreds coming without their suppers, all the suburbs sending large delegations, and many coming twenty miles or more by train. One mechanic, who had lost his position by sickness, said he much desired to hear a special lecture, but having no money, and being unwilling to beg his way in, offered his note for *twenty-five cents*. Of course a ticket was given him. A young man, crippled for life, with a cheery face, is brought and put in his seat every night. Our oldest citizen, who remembers Cleveland with only five hundred inhabitants, sits close to the platform, so as not to lose a word. To entertain 4,000 people for three hours, especially at the close of sixty hours' labor, has not been an easy task.

The Management has attempted to present sound ideas in a crisp and entertaining manner, with pleasant surroundings. Four thousand fresh books have been given away by polite ushers each Saturday night. Five electric lights have converted the Tabernacle into a vast reading room; excellent orchestra music has invigorated and cheered, and exotic plants and flowers have had their refining influence. Scientific facts, often illustrated, have been compactly and briefly put in thirty-minute preludes, thus not wearying the audience. The Singing Schools have been a marked success. The mere standing up for a few minutes has been restful, and the songs have given comfort to many. Professor N. Coe Stewart, at the head of his "Singing Brigade," has intensified the patriotism of every National Song. He has been admirably seconded by orchestra, organ, and hundreds of teachers and graduates of our public schools.

Many prominent citizens have acted as Presiding Officers, in an able manner, among them the President of the Bureau, General M. D. Leggett, whose unselfish interest in this new method of education has been constant from the beginning.

From eight o'clock till half-past nine each Saturday night, we have been charmed by eloquence, recitation and melody, or we have traveled in search of knowledge in the "fairy land of nature," or in imagination through the Far West, and diagonally across Europe from the North Pole to Rome.

Miss Juliet Corson, of the "New York School of Cookery," gave a course of five lectures, free to the members of the Educational Bureau, as follows: Monday, Jan. 14th, "Marketing and Soup Making." Tuesday, Jan. 15th, "Good Bread and Simple Pastry." Wednesday, Jan. 16th, "Fish, Fowls and Sauces." Thursday, Jan. 17th, "Meats and Vegetables." Friday, Jan. 18th, "Food, Chemistry and Table Etiquette;" from 2:30 to 4:30 o'clock on afternoons of dates named. The admission, without Bureau Course Ticket, was Fifteen Cents, or Fifty Cents for the Course of Five Lectures. The total audiences numbered quite *fifteen thousand women.* Whole carcasses of animals were cut into suitable pieces on the platform by Mr. Joseph Rogers, and all kinds of plain cooking were done. Miss Corson won the enthusiastic approval of her immense classes, and well deserved the hearty vote of thanks and basket of flowers given her. The Management offers cordial thanks to the members of the Bureau for their faithful attendance, earnest attention, and unanimous support in abolishing encores, stamping the feet, and leaving the Tabernacle before the exercises ended.

Last summer, under the admirable leadership of Prof. J. M. Leland, the Bureau gave ten Open Air Concerts on the Public Square, and many thousand people, old and young, greatly enjoyed them. As in the cities of Europe, so in Cleveland, some provision should be made, by either the City Council, or permanent private benevolence, for open air concerts.

A brief report is made by our Treasurer, Mr. W. H. Doan. Prior to settlement of all collections and bills, it is not possible to more than approximate his accounts. In the interest of the ticket holders a late hour was adopted for selling single tickets. This change, and the price of Course Tickets, made twenty-five cents less than last season, together with other causes, naturally made our receipts less, while the cost of our entertainments has increased with the quality, and on account of more advertising and paid services. *Three cents* has been about the average cost to the members for each concert, lecture and book during the past three seasons.

The Bureau plan of educational effort for the people is most heartily endorsed by the press and prominent men throughout the country, and we hope a similar work may be accomplished in other cities.

Respectfully submitted,

C. E. BOLTON, *Secretary and Manager.*

☞ See Schedule on next page.

SCHEDULE SHOWING WORK FOR THE SEASON OF 1883-84.

No.	Date.	Musicals.	Preludes.	Subjects.	Presiding Officers.
	1883-84.				
1	Nov. 24...	Bureau Orchestra.	Chaplain A. G. Byers.....	Wrongs in Prisons and Poorhouses*.....	Mr Samuel Mather.....
2	Dec. 1....	Bureau Orchestra.	Rev. Philip S. Moxom.....	His Level Best.....	Pres't Carroll Cutler, D.D..
3	Dec. 8....	Bureau Orchestra.	Rev. Washington Gladden.	The Workingman's Wrongs, and How to Right Them:.....	Mr. W. D Patterson.....
4	Dec. 15...	Bureau Orchestra.	Dr. C. F. Dutton.....	Sewerage and Ventilation*.....	Rev. D. H. Muller, D.D....
5	Dec. 22...	Bureau Orchestra.	Judge S. O. Griswold.....	Across the Atlantic,.....	Judge Stevenson Burke....
6	Jan'y 5...	Bureau Orchestra.	Hon. B. G. Northrup, LL.D.	Homes, and How to Improve Them.....	Mr. J. B. Meriam.....
7	Jan'y 12..	Bureau Orchestra.	C. C. Baldwin, Esq.....	Mounds, and Mound Builders*.....	Hon. Amos Townsend.....
8	Jan'y 19..	Bureau Orchestra.	Rev. N. S. Rulison.....	Marriage.....	Rt. Rev. G. T. Bedell, D.D.
9	Jan'y 26..	Bureau Orchestra.	Judge J. E. Ingersoll.....	Civil Service.....	Dr. G. C. E. Weber.....
10	Feb'y 2...	Bureau Orchestra.	Rev. C. S. Pomeroy, D.D....	Cleveland Homes—Distinguished People*.....	Gen'l M. D. Leggett.....

(SCHEDULE—Continued.)

Ten Open-Air Band Concerts were given in the Public Square last Summer.

No.	Date.	Entertainments.	Subjects.	Books for the People.
1	Nov. 24...	General John Eaton.....	Industrial Education Abroad and at Home.	Inventors and Inventions.....
2	Dec. 1....	Mr. Wm. Marshall.....	Wonders of the Far West*.....	Geology and Botany.....
3	Dec. 8....	Miss Helen Potter..... Miss Laura E. Dainty.....	Recitations and Impersonations.....	Facts About Capital and Labor.....
4	Dec. 15...	J. B. Gough, Esq.....	The Powers That Be.....	Mysteries of the Sea.....
5	Dec. 22...	Prof. Wm. C. Richards.....	The Fairy-Land of Nature*.....	People and Places.....
6	Jan'y 5...	Mr. C. E. Bolton.....	From the Polar Sea to Paris*.....	English and American Literature.....
7	Jan'y 12..	Mr. Wallace Bruce.....	Native Mettle.....	Good Manners.....
8	Jan'y 19..	Mr. C. E Bolton.....	Over the Alps to Rome*.....	Ancient Republics.....
9	Jan'y 26..	Fisk University Jubilee Singers	Slave and Other Songs.....	Germany.....
10	Feb'y 2...	Mrs. Mary A. Livermore... Prof. Van Buren Denslow.	Debate—Shall Woman Vote?.....	Famous Women.....

*Illustrated.

Miss Juliet Corson's Lessons in Cookery, attended by 15,000 women.

Average Attendance Saturday Nights, - - 4,000

Cash Receipts, Three Seasons (Estimate), - $17,500

Total Books, Magazines, Maps and Papers Given Away, . 167,200

Total Number Pages. - - - - 6,308,200

6,308,200

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NOV 8 1887
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MAR 12 '52 H

CANCELLED

MAR 18 1887
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